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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from the 1991 annual conference of the American Reading Forum are presented in this yearbook. The papers, which deal with issues regarding ways to develop and strengthen a society of active readers, address policies, procedures, and programs for the beginning child reader, the beginning adult reader, and a range of readers in between and beyond. Papers in the yearbook are: "Developing Problem Solving Environments to Prepare Teachers for Instruction of Diverse Learners" (Victoria J. Risko); "Reasons 'Effective' Strategies Are Not Used: Student's and Teacher's Explanations" (Richard J. Telfer and others); "Are Teachers Using Whole Language to Teach Reading: A National Perspective" (Patricia K. Smith); "Reading Recommendations for a Multi-Cultural Tomorrow" (Kathleen Evans and Terry Bratcher); "Lifelong Reading by Teachers as Bibliotherapy" (Don Lumpkin); "Scenes from a Classroom: Literature for Thinking about Teaching--An Annotated Bibliography" (Marilyn Eanet); "Caldecott Medal Books (1938-1991): Some Observations" (Sylvia Hutchinson and Ira E. Aaron); "Promoting Readership within Public Schools: Survey of Administrators and Recommendations for Practice" (Emilie P. Sullivan and others); and "Assessing Job-Related Basic Skills: Job Trails as an Example" (Eunice N. Askov and Bernice P. Sheaffer). Panel presentations in the yearbook are: "Developing Lifelong Literacy: Some Stories Inspired by Roger Schank's 'Tell Me a Story'" (Wayne Otto and others); "The Portrayal of Ethnic Characters in Newbery Award Winning Books" (Cindy Gillespie and others); "Kindergartner's Use of Theme-Based Integrated Texts" (Marino C. Alvarez and Judith Vaugh); "Evaluation of Statewide Workplace Literacy Computer-Assisted Instruction for Commercial Drivers: R.O.A.D. to SUCCESS" (Emory Brown and Eunice N. Askov); and "An Innovative Program for Meeting the Literacy Needs of a Non-Majority-Culture Community" (Mary Beneditti and others). (RS)

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Four copies of typewritten doublespaced manuscripts (approximately 5 to 20 pages) that follow current APA form should be submitted. Manuscripts and all correspondence should be sent to Bernie Hayes/Kay Camperell, Co-editors, ARF Yearbook, Department of Elementary Education, Utah State University, Logan, Utah 84322-2805.

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From The Editors

Volume XII of the American Reading Forum Yearbook contains papers which have been recommended by the Editorial Advisory Board from those submitted by authors who presented at the 1991 Annual Conference in Sarasota, Florida. Papers from general meetings, problems courts, and forums have been arranged to represent the variety of exciting ideas explored during the conference.

Over the past several years American Reading forum participants have investigated many ways to combat illiteracy with the teaching of reading. Along with abolishing illiteracy, comes the need to combat aliteracy and develop lifelong readers.

The theme of this year's volume is "Developing Lifelong Readers". The volume contains papers that deal with issues regarding ways to develop and strengthen a society of active readers. Papers in the yearbook address policies, procedures, and programs for the beginning child reader, the beginning adult reader, and a range of readers in between and beyond.

American Reading Forum

Volume XII, 1992

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Developing Problem Solving Environments to Prepare Teachers for Instruction of Diverse Learners

Victoria J. Risko

One of the most complex problems confronting classroom teachers is the provision of appropriate instruction for students who are experiencing reading problems. Current surveys reveal that experienced teachers indicate that it is difficult to teach children with diverse learning needs and that they believe their preparation for building appropriate and alternate strategies for teaching students who are low achievers was not adequate (Wedman & Robinson, 1989). This finding is interesting when it is compared to studies that describe beginning teachers as highly motivated and confident about their ability to teach, indicating little anxiety about teaching students with different backgrounds and achievement levels (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). It may be that beginning teachers are unable to apply information "learned" in college classes and field experiences to respond to real classroom problems because of their limited experiences with complex educational problems and their limited knowledge of varied conditions requiring use of previously learned information (Clark, 1988).

Helping students with reading achievement problems become strategic and independent life-long readers is dependent upon teachers' ability to think about and respond to the problems their students may be experiencing. To accommodate diverse learners, teachers need to understand how reading develops, the multiple factors (e.g., student background, text characteristics, classroom environment) impacting this development, the goals and procedures for a wide array of instructional strategies, and the multiple fabrics of classroom conditions requiring use of such information.

Most researchers and teacher educators agree that the realities of complex classroom situations require teachers to make flexible use of multiple sources of information when they are confronted with instructional and classroom problems. Goodlad (1990) and others indicate, however, that teacher education programs fall far short of preparing teachers to evaluate and respond to complex problems and unexpected situations in the classroom. It is argued that learning experiences provided in teacher preparation programs may be insufficient for producing "knowledge that interacts with the particular context and classroom situation in which the knowledge is transformed into action" (Richardson, 1990, p. 12). For example, narrowly-defined case studies and microteaching experiences may oversimplify complex issues and inhibit use of problem-solving strategies required for framing and responding to problems (Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1986; Clark, 1988).

A flexible and meaningful application of information learned during college classes and field placements to problems encountered in real classrooms requires the development of problem solving strategies that involve appropriate use of this information. Unfortunately, some preservice teachers may not make the necessary transition from acquiring factual knowledge to developing procedural or use-oriented knowledge (Bransford & Vye, 1989). Cognitive theorists such as Anderson (1982, 1987), Bransford and Vye (1989), and Lesgold (1988) argue that meaningful learning occurs when the learner makes use of factual or declarative knowledge and develops conditionalized knowledge, the ability to analyze conditions for the application of concepts and strategies. Too often, though, instruction for future teachers follows a pattern in which the future teachers are simple told what experts know (facts) or how experts solve classroom dilemmas (procedures). Lesgold (1988) argues that this knowledge alone will not help learners solve problems unless they also learn how to translate this knowledge into "mental acts" (p. 198), which involves thinking about issues and problems in ways that produce reasonable solutions.

In several papers (Risko, Yount, & Towell, 1991; Risko, 1991) we discussed the goals, rationale and design for a project we are implementing at Vanderbilt University. This project, partially funded by a Sears-Roebuck Foundation Grant (Risko, 1989), provided us the opportunity to design instruction that is anchored in video-based contexts to invite preservice teachers' analysis of authentic classroom problems. Applying the concept of anchored instruction (Bransford, Vye, Kinzer, & Risko, 1990) to the education of future teachers we use videodisc and hypercard technology to create learning environments in which preservice teachers are active producers of knowledge rather than passive recipients. We believe that our anchored instruction, coupled with case methodology, is one way to help future teachers recognize similarity between information learned in college classes and information required to respond to complex classroom problems. Case methodology, as described by Christensen (1987) and Learned (1987), is a process-oriented approach that encourages problem formulation and problem solving. Our cases, containing multiple sources of embedded information, represent complex and authentic classroom situations that invite sustained thinking and problem-oriented activities.

During the implementation of our instruction, multiple quantitative and qualitative data sets were collected and analyzed to evaluate the effect of our instruction on students' learning. One major focus of our evaluation is the examination of communication patterns occurring among the professor and preservice teachers during instruction. In a previous paper we (Risko, Young, & McAllister, in press) presented patterns that emerged from our analysis of discourse data to describe the social dimensions of communication occurring in our classroom and to identify the nature of idea generation and problem solving occurring during instruction. This analysis allowed us to document students' active participation in their own learning and to describe how both the professor and students mediated learning by adding and elaborating on each others' ideas. This previous analysis indicated that the examination of our cases, situated in experiences shared by the professor and students, enabled students to make connections between case information, assigned readings and prior experiences and to recognize the importance of this information when thinking about specific classroom conditions and problems. This initial analysis of our discourse data documented students' generative learning and flexible use of information during their study of case information.

The goal for this paper is to build on this former work by exploring further how knowledge is represented and communicated by the professor during case analysis. Traditionally, we think of college professors as purveyors of information, teachers who provide information through lectures, demonstrations, and simulations requiring varying degrees of student participation. Yet these learning opportunities are teacher directed and often serve the purpose of displaying knowledge that is in the head of the "expert" professor. Conversely, a major goal for using our video-based cases is to provide rich problem-solving environments in which both the professor and students initiate learning and confront problems and obstacles (Carter & Doyle, 1987), and use multiple sources of information to think about the realities of classroom situations. In this paper, the role of the professor is documented to describe the nature of her participation in the learning activities that occurred during the implementation of our videodisc-based case methodology.

Methodology and Procedures

The analysis of discourse data presented in this paper highlights strategies used by the professor to encourage learning and knowledge acquisition.

Setting and Participants

The course targeted for data collection was an undergraduate course, Remedial Reading and Practicum. This course is required for elementary and special education majors. All preservice teachers enrolled in this course previously completed a developmental reading course, a language arts course and an accompanying practicum. For the first seven weeks of the semester, regular class sessions were held on campus twice a week. During the next five weeks, each preservice teacher was assigned to a practicum setting and was responsible for planning and implementing a reading instructional program for a low-achieving student. For the last week, the preservice teachers returned to the college class and shared information about their practicum student following a "case" format.

Instruction in College Class

Across all class sessions, the instructor and students participated as a whole class to examine the video-based cases. Three cases recorded on videodisc were used to explore authentic classroom and Chapter I situations. Each case contains various forms of naturally occurring classroom events (e.g., teacher-student interactions, teacher questioning, student participation in reading and writing activities) demonstrating factors that contribute to the complexity of reading problems. The video cases are supplemented by related text materials and information corresponding to each case (e.g., child's assessment protocols, teachers's lesson plans, samples of student's writing) to provide a detailed study of each student's reading abilities and problems. Taking advantage of the rapid, random access and freeze-frame capabilities of videodisc technology, the professor and students often reexamined and "cross-examined" scenes and cases for different reasons and to access information that was difficult to describe in written or verbal accounts (e.g., teachers' nonverbal cues).

Hypercard technology was developed also to enhance the effectiveness of instruction by encouraging access to multiple sources of information. From a main menu, numerous cards were accessed on the computer for exploring a wide range of factors (e.g., text characteristics, instructional context, beliefs/attitudes) that may contribute to target reading problems. Such technology supported the use of videodiscs to facilitate case analysis from multiple perspectives and to facilitate multiple connections between text and video information.

Data Collection

The data were collected across the fall and spring semesters, during the 1991-1992 school year. Course enrollment was 14 and 12 for the fall and spring semesters, respectively. All students enrolled in the course were either juniors or seniors. The author of this paper taught the course for both semesters. Dale Yount and Dena McAllister, two doctoral students in reading, became observer-participants in the course conducting an indepth analysis of classroom interactions. Daily field notes taken during class were transcribed for use in a microanalysis of patterns of classroom discourse and to generate descriptions of how learning was displayed by both the instructor and students (Wood, 1989, 1990). Debriefing meetings were conducted weekly by at least two of the three researchers. The analysis of classroom discourse was conducted within the tradition of qualitative research in which an interpretative stance guides the data analysis (e.g., Atkinson & Hammersley, 1988; Firestone, 1985; Jacob, 1987, 1988).

Discourse Patterns

A major goal for creating rich problem-solving contexts for the exploration of the videodisc-based cases is to invite students' active participation and active processing of information. A consistent finding of our discourse analysis is the active and generative learning that occurs during exploration of cases (Risko, Yount, & McAllister, 1991). Roles of the professor and students were not static. Instead, learning was initiated by both the professor and students. Thinking and decision-making was made visible by all participants. The data analysis presented here though is focused on the role of the college professor to identify how she encouraged idea generation and problem solving during instruction. Of interest is how the professor displays and transforms knowledge to encourage learning and to invite students' active participation and use of information. Segments taken from our discourse data are used to illustrate patterns that were consistently documented across class sessions.

Display and Representation of Knowledge

The professor's display of knowledge was complex and variable. Because responsibility for participation and learning is shared by the professor and students, the cooperative learning and problem oriented activities required the professor to assume different roles for encouraging and elaborating on students' contributions. The following examples, depicting roles assumed by the professor, illustrate how learning is encouraged during class sessions. Within each excerpt of the discourse, R designated the professor and a different letter provides a code for each preservice teacher.

Synergistic learning. In an effort to move away from a lecture format, the professor invites students to generate their own questions and hunches in order to guide case analysis. In the following examples, the professor is using either video or text excerpts taken from one of the cases to set the stage for active exploration of case information. In this episode (occurring February 11), the preservice teachers are analyzing a literature-based lesson in which Emma, the subject of their first case, is receiving instruction.

R: How would you characterize this lesson?

Kt: It seems like it builds on her prior knowledge--everything is integrated.

R: So the lesson seems to be child-centered. What did you notice that makes you believe it is integrated?

K: The ideas are coming from the kids themselves and are being woven into the lesson.

Mc: She is giving them a lot of practice with skills. . . .

K: Yes, I think for evaluating the student it is helpful to do this in context like this story.

R: Good point. Why is this helpful for Emma?

J: Emma likes drama and oral reading. The past reading activity appeals to her interests when she is getting up there and telling her ad [that she had written after reading the story].

R: What else did you notice?

A: Comprehension seemed to be at a greater level.

R: Why?

Mc: Kids were more in the story, not just seeing it from outside.

K: Also, the lesson keeps supporting itself, like using vocabulary. It was taught within the content of the story.

Instead of telling the students what occurred in the literature-based lesson that they viewed, the professor opened discussion by asking for students' interpretations. The professor is a co-participant during the discussion elaborating on others' ideas (e.g., so the lesson seems to be child-centered) and asking questions to encourage students to extend each others' responses. Such a pattern of dialogue displays learning as synergistic, suggesting to students that their mutual involvement in learning activities can enable and enhance knowledge acquisition for themselves and their peers. Learning in this class is generated from commonly-shared activities in which the professor and students enable each others' inspection and thinking about complex information. Involving preservice teachers in such dynamic exchanges around the inspection of multiple ideas illustrates to these preservice teachers that knowledge is constructed through the examination, re-examination, and reflection of multiple sources of information.

Information is used as tools for problem solving. Information gained from the analysis of each case and corresponding text readings was used as a springboard for a more indepth analysis of case events. In the following episode (occurring February 13), the students are asked to think about what they know about Emily, the subject of their second case.

R: Recall that we met Emily during our last class session. What do you remember about Emily?

The students indicated that Emily had a strong vocabulary, that she was "eloquent" with excellent verbal skills but that she was frustrated with her progress in reading. When the professor asked why Emily might be frustrated and why she failed to learn to read in first grade, the students responded by saying:

J: She was required to learn from two different programs--one had an emphasis on phonics in workbooks and one had an emphasis on whole words in the basal.

K: One specialist said that she learns orally better than visually, yet instruction doesn't make use of this information.

Jn: She had to stay in from recess. She couldn't finish all the worksheets given to her.

This short excerpt was chosen to illustrate how students searched for case information and used this information to identify and analyze factors contributing to problems Emily was experiencing. Subsequent discussion led the students to think about Emily's study of Egypt with her mother at home. They remembered that Emily "has traveled alot." This helps them generate a possible solution to Emily's instructional problem.

M: For a first grader, Emily knows a lot of information, like "sphinx."

R: What does that tell us about instruction? Any clues to a kind of instruction that may be appropriate for Emily? Perhaps an alternative to what is happening in Emily's classroom?

K: What about story dictation, to build her self-esteem by seeing her own story in print?

R: This seems to be relevant to the program conducted during the summer for Emily.

Jn: Yes, using language experience.

J: Lots of LEA's. . .to see her own words and stories.

Jn: LEA used topics Emily was interested in--mummies--it used her language.

R: Yes, her interest and language were used showing Emily she could read. What else did you notice?

K: A story grammar was used to help her organize and remember information.

This close inspection of case information encouraged students to structure their thinking by using what they were learning about Emily as conceptual tools for suggesting a plausible way to respond to a problem experienced by Emily.

Exploring concepts in rich contexts invites higher order and indepth thinking. The previous examples can be revisited to illustrate how the professor encouraged indepth learning about case information. Embedded in the above excerpts is the professor's encouragement of sustained thinking about complex issues impacting upon problems represented in the cases. Students are encouraged to analyze new information, deciding how it relates to previously established ideas, and make judgments about its value and usefulness. For example, the professor reminded students of the language experience approach used by Emily's summer teacher and coached their thinking to a level where they were able to justify its use given the limitations that they identified within Emily's first grade program. While the professor said few words in the above exchange, her coaching helped the students use newly acquired information to analyze Emily's problem and to acquire information about conditions under which it is useful to know various concepts and facts.

Knowledge Is Transformed

Knowledge is transformed into instructional content (Shulman, 1986), and useful information through the professor's use of signals that highlight the significance of information being discussed and through the professor's ability to facilitate connections across multiple sources of information.

Signaling critical features. The professor often generated questions and/or statements to signal "critical features" (Roehler & Duffy, 1991) of content being studied. In the following episode that occurred on January 30, students are analyzing Emma's oral reading on a standardized oral reading test. They have just stated Emma's oral strengths as they observed them and are hypothesizing about problems she may be experiencing and suggesting factors contributing to these problems and possible solutions.

R: What kinds of problems are you observing as you analyze Emma's oral reading?

Kt: We need to pick more passages, passages that are more meaningful [to see how Emma would perform on these].

M: Maybe before she reads again, build schema so she's more familiar with content and then assess her performance.

R: You are suggesting to activate and extend background knowledge as a way to help her oral reading by first helping her understand what she is reading.

In this example, the professor elaborates on the students' ideas and signals the importance of information (e.g., activation and extension of background knowledge) being offered by the students.

Similarly, the following dialogue that occurred on January 21 involvd an analysis of an interview with Emma's teacher. The professor is recording information on a chart (as another way to signal significance of information) and mediates the discussion by suggesting ways to categorize information. This categorization system serves to highlight critical features of ideas being discussed. Also, explicitly alerting students to specific kinds of information has the potential for enhancing their metacognitive awareness of the importance of information.

A: She [Emma] can't elaborate.

R: And the teacher told us [in the interview] that Emma's inferences are weak.

J: Fluency is a problem.

R: Let's put that comment under reading behaviors and I'm going to add vocabulary as a possible problem. That was suggested by the teacher as a possible problem. Anything else?

J: Does she read outside of class? Does she go to the library--what are her experiences?

R: Good point--if we find that the instructional program is narrow what other kind of reading experiences are provided? What else?

Kt: How well does she do in other subjects?

A: Let's check her background, home, language, anything that might influence her.

As illustrated in previous examples, the professor continues to act as a co-participant of the group. She is not directing the group to come up with "right" answers but instead she listens to the ideas of others and contributes her own when appropriate. She, however, does signal ideas that are helpful for thinking about the case and she helps students to understand the importance of ideas needed for interpreting case information.

Facilitating multiple connections across concepts. The use of video cases for preparing teachers to be problem solvers requires an instructor's deep understanding of the content--both content of the case concepts and related readings and content represented in video episodes and the corresponding hypercard program--and ability to spontaneously access connections between the two. This point is illustrated in the following episode that occurred January 21. Students are viewing Emma's Chapter One teacher conduct an interview with Emma. The professor asks students to recall their text readings and then asks:

R: What is the purpose of an interview?

An: To find out more about a student than just how he/she performs on school work

R: Other reasons?

Kt: To learn about a child's interest.

R: Would you use a structured or informal procedure?

The instructor then accessed scenes illustrating two different procedures, one structured and one informal, for interviewing. This was followed by students' elaboration of the two plans.

M: Probably to find answers to specific questions–structured.

R: So you are suggesting to go in with a plan, a list of questions. How is this different from an informal procedure?

M: You go in just to talk.

Kt: A structured interview provides answers to specific questions as compared to an informal interview where you look at patterns as a whole.

Contrasting video sets were used to build the students' recognition of interview procedures. However, the appropriate use of these contrast sets depends on the professor's knowledge of content that is available in the technology and ability to access it at a time when it is useful for helping students clarify information and make connections between what they have read and what they are observing in the classroom.

As the discussion continues, other forms of "connections" are made apparent. These include connecting case content to students' prior experiences and to different perspectives or ways for examining information. The professor asks the students to identify what they are learning about Emma through the interview. Students indicate that Emma is interested in "basketball," "comics," "Ramona Quimby," "Nintendo," and so on.

One student volunteered that Emma sounds like a latchkey child. She went on to explain her own experience as a latchkey child and how she "filled" her after school time waiting for her mother to come home. Sharing her prior experience provided another way to think about Emma's responses. The professor continues the discussion by asking the students to analyze the interview by describing the procedures followed by Emma's teacher. The preservice teachers noted procedures such as the use of "open-ended questions," "involving Emma in natural conversation," and so on. This aspect of the discussion required the students to view the interview from a procedural viewpoint. Last, the professor asked the preservice teachers to suggest alternative strategies for interviewing Emma. The preservice teachers described a "toilet paper game" and an "M & M" activity to invite interview information. They then judged the appropriateness of these ideas for particular situations. This part of the discussion helped teachers generate strategies that may be used in different classroom conditions. Experiences such as these described above enabled students to examine problems from different perspectives and to understand problems that experts encounter and the connections experts make across sources of information to solve problems (Risko, CTG, 1990).

Summary

The process of helping students notice characteristics of problem situations and to define conditions under which to apply information is a goal commonly stated by teacher educators. Involving students in case analysis provides multiple opportunities for enhancing their knowledge about problem situations and their ability to generate plausible ways to respond to these situations. A dynamic exchange of ideas among the professor and students can be stimulated by a professor who invites students to participate in their own learning, who coaches students to use newly acquired information for solving problems, who helps students understand the importance of information, and who mediates learning by helping students make connections across multiple sources of information.

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Reasons "Effective" Strategies Are Not Used: Student and Teacher Explanations

Richard J. Telfer, Robert E. Jennings, Reed Mottley

Much has been written in the past few years about "at-risk" students, those children likely to drop out of school prior to graduating from twelfth grade. Entire editions of such professional publications as *Educational Leadership* (February 1989) and the *Journal of Reading* (April 1990) have focused on suggestions and programs for helping such students. Concern for these students has resulted in many programs being mandated and developed at state and local levels. These programs have included focus on (a) academic disability, (b) job-training programs, (c) making schools more relevant for the individual student, and (d) proposals for restructuring the schools (Slavin & Madden, 1989; Newmann, 1989; Hamby, 1989; Madden, Slavin, Karweit & Livermon, 1989).

Along with heightened emphasis on working with at-risk students, there has been a strengthened focus on reading/learning strategies in all classrooms. Some of these reading/learning strategies have been shown to be effective with at-risk students (Slavin & Madden, 1989). Yet reports stress that these strategies are generally not being used by teachers, particularly teachers in content area classrooms (Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Dishner, 1985; Wendler, Samuels, & Moore, 1989). Earlier research regarding at-risk students (Telfer, Jennings, McNinch, & Mottley, 1990, 1991) identified disparities in perceptions of the effectiveness of instructional approaches as well as disparities in reports of the frequency of use of instructional activities. The earlier research also reported differences between and among teachers and students.

This study is an extension of work in which we surveyed students and teachers about their perceptions of what it means to be "at risk" and their perceptions of which activities are the most effective and which activities are used most often. The results of those surveys identified differences between teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students as well as differences between perceptions of value and use. The current study goes beyond surveys to obtain more specific information about why perceptions of the three groups differ and why strategies that are thought to be effective are infrequently used. Here, we interviewed students and teachers to get their explanations of why disparities exist between the perceptions of students and teachers as to what approaches are likely to be beneficial and why disparities exist between perceptions of effectiveness and perceptions of use.

Objectives

Structured interviews were conducted with students and teachers to ascertain reasons for differences in perceptions of effectiveness and use between teachers, at-risk students, and non-at-risk students. These interviews were expected to give insights in three areas. First, a better understanding would be gained as to why activities that are thought to be effective are not used. As a result, educators may be able to address the mis-understandings that get in the way of using effective strategies. Second, a better understanding would be gained of reasons for differences in student and teacher perceptions. Insights would be gained about whether differences between student and teacher perceptions reflect real differences or simply differences in the understanding of terminology. Third, a greater insight into ways of making classroom adjustments for at-risk students would be gained.

This study's goal was to examine closely reasons for apparent differences in the perceptions of teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students. These differences in perceptions of how to help at-risk students were seen in three areas: (a) differences between teachers and students, (b) differences between at-risk students and not-at-risk students, and (c) differences between effectiveness and use of strategies. In order to understand these differences, a series of structured interviews focusing on reasons for differences were conducted. Responses to the interviews were categorized and analyzed; differences among the groups of respondents were also examined.

Methods

Fifteen individuals in each of three small cities were interviewed. Five teachers, five "at-risk" students, and five "not-at-risk" students in each city were interviewed. The teachers selected worked with both at-risk and not-at-risk students. At-risk students were chosen from those identified as at-risk by district criteria. Not-at-risk students were chosen from the rest of the school population.

A ten-item structured interview was developed to respond to the findings of the earlier studies (See Appendix A). Before the questions were asked the interviewees were told the purpose of the study and given a brief oral summary of the results of the earlier studies (See Appendix B). In general, they were told that the earlier studies found that teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students had different perceptions about what students, teachers, and other school officials could do to help at-risk students. They were also told that while all groups found many suggested activities to be effective, even the most effective activities were rarely used in classrooms.

After this brief introduction, read to each interviewee, the ten questions were asked. The ten questions were selected to represent three types of differences noted in the previous study: (a) differences between students and teachers, (b) differences between at-risk and not-at-risk students, and (c) differences between perceived effectiveness and use of strategies.

The following format was used in the interviews. Questions were read, one at a time, to each interviewee. Interviewees were allowed to respond to questions in as much detail as they chose. The responses were audiotaped and later transcribed. When necessary during the course of the interviews, interviewers rephrased questions for clarification and to refocus responses.

Data Analysis

The transcribed responses to the ten structured interview questions were read, grouped and analyzed using the following procedure. First, interview transcripts were coded so that the identity of the respondent was not evident. Then, transcripts were sorted so that all responses to a given question were placed together in a folder, with each response on a separate strip of paper. For each question, the responses were read and grouped according to the nature of the response statement. Labeled categories were formed after this initial reading. All items were then reread and placed into the labeled categories. When necessary, adjustments were made to add a category or combine categories. The categorized responses to each of the ten questions gave a collective explanation of the reasons for differences in perception.

Once all items were categorized, so that a picture was gained of the general types of responses to a given question, responses were identified as being from teachers, at-risk students, or not-at-risk students. The patterns of responses from the three groups were then compared using contingency tables and then computing Chi-square statistics.

Results

This study's goal was to examine reasons for apparent differences in perceptions of teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students in three areas: (a) differences between teachers and students, (b) differences between at-risk students and not-at-risk students, and (c) differences between effectiveness and use. In order to understand these differences, a series of ten interview questions were asked of teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students.

Differences Between Teachers and Students

The first four questions addressed differences in perceptions between student and teachers. Teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students had been asked in an earlier study (Telfer, et al., 1991) to suggest ways to help at-risk students. For each of the first four questions below, the suggestions from teachers were significantly different from those for students. In this study, representatives of the three groups (teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students) were asked to tell why suggestions differed.

Question One. **Teachers identified "Jobs, Job Programs, and Job Related Classes" much more often than did students. Can you give a reason for this difference?** Most of the responses to this question reflected differences in the responsibilities and concerns of teachers and students. Approximately 70 percent of the responses centered around these differences in responsibilities and concerns (See Table 1). One-third of the respondents explained the difference by stating that teachers knew better about the future than did the students. For example, "Well, I think that's because teachers are more aware of what jobs have to be or you have to prepare students for that job and the job world. Students don't look at it that much; they're not farsighted. I think teachers would probably be more aware of that. Probably because students are not interested in jobs right now. And teachers know more about how important it is to get ready for the future. And students really don't understand it" (Teacher).

More than one-fifth of the respondents addressed differences in perspectives. For example, "They think different than kids do. You have to have a job and all this, and kids don't know. Teachers just have a different way of thinking than us, I guess" (At-Risk Student).

Of the rest of the responses, many repeated arguments in favor or against job programs. Although these questions were not strictly responsive to the questions, they did reflect opinions about the value of the job related school activities. An example of a response in this category is the following: "Well, I kind of see it as important. There are some students who aren't motivated at all by school and they find jobs. They're just going to enter the workplace anyway... I mean it's a way to keep them in school" (Not-At-Risk Student).

The "other" category for Question One included single answers, mostly answers that did not respond directly to the question. For example, "They probably didn't think that jobs were related to school" (Not-At-Risk Student).

Table 1

Reasons Teachers Identified "Jobs, Job Program and Job Related Classes" More Often Than Did Students

Teachers know better about future	32.6
Differences in perspectives of students and teachers	23.3
Students want to have fun	14.0
Job classes will train students	9.3
Schools shouldn't be running job programs	4.7
Job training will encourage dropping out	4.7
Working is currently a problem	4.7
Other (including no response)	7.0

Question Two. **Teachers identified "Help with Schoolwork" much more often than did students. Can you give a reason for this difference?** The two most common responses to this question stressed either (a) the student's inability or unwillingness to seek or accept assistance or (b) the teachers' insight into their student's needs (Table 2). Typical responses stressing students' reluctance to seek or accept help include the following. "Students, like, (are) afraid to ask for help.

People, their friends will think like, 'Oh, Miss Preppy,' and stuff like that and tease you about it" (At-Risk Student). "They are embarrassed to have to ask, you know. Time is also a factor. Coming to get help outside of class conflicts with other activities, including jobs" (Teacher). Responses indicating the teacher's insight into students' needs had such comments as "Teachers know that students need special help in schoolwork" (At-Risk Student) or "I can see the teacher's reasons for this. If they're not doing well in school, they obviously need help with their schoolwork" (Not-At-Risk Student).

Less common responses focused on concern that teachers weren't able to give appropriate help. "If you try to get their help and they explain it to you and you still don't understand, they keep explaining it the same way and you're not sure what it is. That could be a problem" (Not-At-Risk Student). "Teachers don't really remember. They think back through their high school years but they don't remember how tough it was.... I guess some teachers are trying to help so much they're losing the factor that it's really difficult for some students and for others it's just a breeze" (At-Risk Student).

Responses in the "other" category consisted of isolated responses or answers that didn't address the question or single responses. For example, "Teachers feel sorry for kids, but teachers need to treat all kids equal" (At-Risk Student).

Table 2

Reasons Teachers Identified "Help With Homework" More Often Than Did Students

Students are unwilling or unable to seek help	31.8
Teachers have better insight into the students' needs	27.3
Students and teachers disagree on whether teachers can help	11.4
Homework takes too much time for students	9.1
Other	13.6
No response	6.8

Question Three. **Teachers identified "Understand Student Problems/Needs" more often than did students. Can you give a reason for this difference?** Three types of responses to this question were most common: (a) Students don't want to share their problems with their teachers; (b) teachers don't understand the lives of students today; and (c) teachers and students can take different perspectives (Table 3). The reluctance of students to share with teachers is illustrated in the following statements. "Well, it's what the kids call 'dipping.' They don't want a lot of their personal things aired to the public" (Teacher). "I'd say because the students basically don't want the teachers involved with their problems. Sometimes the problems are personal or whatever" (At-Risk Student).

Teachers' lack of understanding of today's student is suggested in the following comments. "I wouldn't think that the faculty could actually understand the problems any better because of the generation gap. And, the teachers probably thought (there was) a chance that you could know maybe by working one on one or something. . . . The students thought they couldn't, but the teachers thought they could" (Not-At-Risk Student). "Teachers don't really understand the full size of the students' problems. And...might try to help with the work when it's the home that needs fixing first" (At-Risk Student).

The ability of teachers to take a different perspective is shown in the following comment. "I think it's always easier to understand problems when you can have an objective point of view and not be in the middle of the problem. I think the aging experience plus the ability to be objective and plus the fact that most of the teachers have helped so many students over a period of time so that they have seen the kinds of needs repeatedly as opposed to a student only have the need immediately now" (Teacher).

Table 3

Reasons Teachers Identified "Understand Student Problems/Needs" More Often Than Did Students

Students don't want to share problems with teachers	28.6
Teachers don't understand the students' situations	21.4
Teachers and students have different responsibilities	17.9
Other responses	17.9
Don't know or no answer	14.3

Question Four. **Students identified "Treat Students Appropriately" more often than did teachers. Can you give a reason for this difference?** The most common response to this item highlighted differences in the definition of "appropriate treatment" (See Table 4), "I would have to say that oftentimes these kids that are at risk are disruptive or they are the passive aggressive kids that don't respond when you make overtures to help them... After you get the kid to behave you forget or you don't have time to sit down and work with them individually on a skill. And maybe that's what the kids are looking for as 'I need help and the teacher isn't recognizing it'" (Teacher). "Students want to be treated 'right' whether they do their schoolwork or not. Students might sometimes misinterpret when teachers fuss about them not doing their work" (Not-At-Risk Student). "Most teachers probably think they do treat students appropriately. The students may not see it that way" (Not-At-Risk Student).

Other common responses reflected dissatisfaction with the way students were treated. "All the teachers treat us like we don't know nothing, (like) we're little kids. And especially with this . . . program, we do little kids' work. It's not that we are stupid, it's just that we didn't ever go to school. We skipped and got in trouble. That's why we got in trouble with our grades, and they treat us like we're just dumb" (At-Risk Student).

Responses in the "other" category didn't directly address reasons for differences in perceptions. An example is the following response: "At-Risk students don't want to be discipline" (Not-At-Risk Students).

Table 4

Reasons Students Identified "Treat Students Appropriately" More Often Than Did Teachers

Appropriate treatment depends on your point of view	35.7
Students not treated as adults	21.4
Appropriate treatment is a two-way street	17.9
Teachers stereotype students	7.1
Teachers too concerned with authority	4.8
Other (including no response)	21.4

Differences Between At-Risk and Not-At-Risk Students

The next set of three questions addressed differences in perceptions between at-risk students and not-at-risk students. For each of these three questions the suggestions from at-risk students were significantly different from those from not-at-risk students. Teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students were asked to explain the differences.

Question Five. **At-risk students saw "Communication with Students" as more valuable than did not-at-risk students. Can you give a reason for this difference?** The most common responses to this question emphasized differences in the communication needs of at-risk and not-at-risk students (Table 5). Some of the comments stressed that communication was more critical for at-risk students, because they are at risk. For example, "Well, if you're not at risk, you would see that you already believe that the communication is good. If you are at risk, I suppose. . . one of the reasons might be that you don't think the communication is good" (Not-At-Risk Student). "The difference in the communication responses of the students comes from at-risk students' seeing a need more sharply than the not-at-risk students. The not-at-risk students don't see the need; they already have it (communication). I also think that sometimes the at-risk kids get themselves into such tight little cliques that they don't allow themselves to (communicate)" (Teacher).

A second group of comments stressed the differential importance of communication, but also indicated that the communication is needed to counter academic deficiencies. "Because the students that were at risk saw how they probably didn't understand the work as (well as) the students who were serious and stuff, so they need more help than the ones who were sure they would finish school" (At-Risk Student). "The not-at-risk students, obviously they're learning from information at hand, not the communication with the teacher. They're not at risk. They are more independent learners" (Not-At-Risk Student).

Table 5

Reasons At-Risk Students Identified "Communication With Students" More Often Than Did Not-At-Risk Students

At-risk students have a greater need for communication	30.2
Academic deficiencies require greater explanation	25.6
At-risk students need to talk with other students	14.0
Low self-esteem keeps at-risk students from communicating	14.0
Other	11.7
No response	4.6

Question Six. **Not-at-risk students saw "Support Groups and Counseling" as more valuable than did at-risk students. Can you give a reason for this difference?** The most common type of response to this question focused on the reluctance of at-risk students to share their problems (Table 6.) "Because not-at-risk can talk about things; at-risk don't want to talk about their failures" (Not-At-Risk Student). "Support groups and counseling should be if you want to go. Because a lot of kids won't sit and be counseled. They can't handle it. That's what I'm talking about when they're trying to help us with our problems. We don't want them. Some kids don't want teachers asking them all kinds of personal questions" (At-Risk Student).

The second most common response concerning support groups and counseling suggested that at-risk and not-at-risk students had different views of the value of these activities. "The not-at-risk would want to get into it more because they, a lot of times the at-risk students are the shyer students and the not-at-risk, they get into it and be more involved. Whereas the at-risk they probably just sit back" (At-Risk Student). "Not-at-risk aren't afraid to ask for help; at-risk do not care or think they need help" (Not-At-Risk Student). "Well, if you don't feel good about yourself in the first place and you are not as sure about things you certainly don't want to get identified with something that's 'not normal'" (Teacher).

Table 6

Reasons Not-At-Risk Students Identified "Support Groups and Counseling" More Often Than Did At-Risk Students

At-risk students don't want others to know their problems	34.9
Students see value of groups differently	23.2
At-risk students don't see value of counseling	9.3
At-Risk students don't care	4.7
Agreement or disagreement with value of counseling	11.6
Not responsive to question (or no answer)	16.3

Question Seven. **Not-at-risk students saw "Attendance Policies" as being more important in encouraging students to drop out of school than did at-risk students. Can you explain the difference in reaction?** By far the largest group of responses regarding attendance policies underscored differences in the reactions of at-risk and not-at-risk students to those policies (Table 7). For example, "not-at-risk know being at school is important to pass while at-risk don't care about passing or coming to school" (Not-At-Risk Student). "When you are at risk and you get suspended and stuff, it's like 'hey, more free time out of school'" (At-Risk Student). "I think a true at-risk kid doesn't really care about attendance policies. . . . (For) a not-at-risk student, that is something that might help keep them in school, because they pay attention to that" (Teacher).

Table 7

Reasons Not-At-Risk Students Identified "Attendance Policies" More Often Than Did At-Risk Students

Different perceptions of value of attendance policies	50.0
Policy does lead to dropping out	15.0
Not-at-risk have little contact with attendance policies	12.5
Problem in student not in policy	7.5
Other	15.0

Differences Between Effectiveness and Use of Strategies

The final set of questions addressed differences in perceived effectiveness and use of some suggested strategies for helping at-risk students. In each of these three situations the suggestion was seen as valuable, but only infrequently used. These questions addressed reasons why these apparently valuable activities were not used more often. Teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students were asked to explain the differences.

Question Eight. **Students and teachers in the previous studies said that allowing students to choose from several assignments was a valuable activity, but it was rarely used. Can you give a reason for this difference between value and use?** The largest number of responses cited difficulties implementing more student choice (Table 8). "I guess it's a lot of work, when you're going to come up with a separate assignment for each student for a number of students. And when you're talking strategies, and at a roundtable discussion, a lot of ideas come up. But then once you try to put them to use, you like to take the ones that aren't as hard to put across" (Teacher). "If the teachers have lots of different assignments for the same class to grade the same night, you know, it would be more stressful on the teacher because they couldn't just go through and have the same answer key for every kid's paper" (Not-At-Risk Student).

Some responses also indicated that students wouldn't use the choice responsibly. "Instead of going (for) different assignments they'd just do what they knew best and not try to work on something else" (At-Risk Student).

Table 8

Reasons "Choosing From Several Assignments" Is Valued But Rarely Used

Difficult to implement	48.8
Students would use inappropriately	18.6
Don't see the value	14.0
Administration/board will not allow	4.6
Other	7.0
No response	7.0

Question Nine. **Students and teachers indicated that changing the way student progress is measured would be an effective way of helping at-risk students, but that changes in the measurement of student progress were not often made. Why aren't these changes made?** The most common explanation of why measurement hasn't changed pointed out the difficulty in achieving this change (Table 9). "Again, I think that probably–the trouble you'd have to go through to make the changes. People like the idea of having a new system that might get a little deeper... than just grades, what they're like and stuff and their learning, how they team. But a lot of people don't want to go to the trouble to make up a system like that" (At-Risk Student). "The one way that I'm familiar with of evaluation and measuring progress is individual conferences, and it works very, very well in a very small class. . . . Unfortunately, when you've got 25 to 35 students in a class you don't have time to do it" (Teacher).

Additional comments mentioned expectations on the part of parents and administrators for the current grading system. "Some think that letter grades are the 'best motivators;' a lot of people are pressured to make better letter grades. The other ways don't matter" (Not-At-Risk Student). "If mom and dad don't see that grade, they don't know how the kid is doing because that's the system they are familiar with" (Teacher).

Table 9

Reasons "Changing The Way Student Progress Is Measured" Is Valued But Not Used

Difficult to make change	38.6
Parents/administration resist	18.2
System okay as is	15.9
Should change grading	13.6
Are doing currently	4.5
No response	9.1

Question Ten: **Students and teachers indicated that demonstrating concern was valuable in helping at-risk students, but students indicated that demonstrating concern was only sometimes used. Can you explain this difference in perception?** The most common response was to say that teachers think they are demonstrating concern, but that students sometimes see it otherwise (Table 10.) "Maybe a student doesn't always perceive what the teacher is doing. He might be doing something different for that student. He might be talking to him individually in the class or something like that, but the student doesn't see that as showing concern, just the normal routine" (Teacher).

Table 10

Reasons "Demonstrating Concern" Is Valued More Than Used

Teachers think they are demonstrating concern	32.6
Demonstrating concern is difficult	30.2
Demonstrating concern is seen as interfering	7.0
Teachers don't care	7.0
Teachers give up on students	7.0
Demonstrating concern can be counterproductive	4.6
Other (including no response)	11.6

Comparisons of the Responses of Teachers, At-Risk Students, and Not-At-Risk Students

To examine whether the patterns of response were consistent across all three groups, teachers, at-risk students, and not-at-risk students, contingency tables were developed for each of the ten questions. Then, Chi-square analyses were conducted using the responses to each question. The Chi-square analyses showed no significant differences among the groups on any of the questions. While the responses across groups were not identical, major differences were not evident.

Discussion

Our previous research (Telfer, et al., 1990, 1991) had indicated differences between and among at-risk students, not-at-risk students, and teachers in regard to perceptions related to instructional approaches, as well as of frequencies of use of instructional techniques and activities. The current research effort focused on determining reasons for these differences in perceptions by using structured interviews to consult at-risk students, not-at-risk students, and teachers. We believe we obtained significant responses from each group. Further, when the responses from each group were compared, we believe further insights into problems related to working with at-risk students were obtained. Specifically, these results highlighted (a) the differences in perceptions across the groups and (b) that shared understandings of those differences. The results have implications for educators.

First, the very fact that each of these groups has different views of programs designed for at-risk students points to a significant problem in working appropriately to develop viable school programs. It would appear that successful school programs for dealing with at-risk students must resolve the differences and move toward greater congruence on the part of the program participants.

Second, a very obvious implication of the interviews is the need for communication: Involvement of at-risk students in planning programs for assisting these students in becoming more successful in school; communication between administrators and at-risk students in developing school policies designed to aid at-risk, i.e., attendance policies; and emphasis on developing communication skills among at-risk students and for establishing communication between at-risk and not-at-risk students.

Third, another outcome of this study is a recognition that at-risk students often have problems beyond the school setting. One at-risk student spoke to this need when he pointed out that before in-school programs will be successful, some students will need help with problems in the home.

Fourth, there appears to be an understanding by educators--agreed to by both at-risk and not-at-risk students--of the benefits of various teaching techniques and activities. However, our research supports earlier studies (Ratekin, et al., 1985; Wendler, 1989) that show such activities are not frequently used. The interviews conducted in this study suggest that teachers are too limited by time constraints to be able "to cover the material" and to implement alternative teaching assignments and projects in their classrooms. Answers to interview questions also indicate that time does not permit development and use of different measurement techniques. Perhaps the time problems cited might be alleviated if teachers were to view their role not so much as purveyors of information, but rather as developers of students' problem solving skills, helping students to use print and non-print media both as sources of information and as foundations for problem solving.

As we gain more understanding of the perceptions of at-risk students, not-at-risk students, and teachers, we can more effectively bridge the gaps and design instruction to meet the needs of all students. In doing so, we must learn from all those involved.

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Appendix A

Structured Interview Questions

I. Differences between teachers and students

1. **Teachers** identified "Jobs, Job Programs, and Job Related Classes" much more **often** than did students." Can you give a reason for this difference?

2. **Teachers** identified "Help with Schoolwork" **much more often** than did students. Can you give a reason for this difference?

3. **Teachers** identified "Understand Student Problems/ Needs" **more often** than did students. Can you give a reason for this difference?

4. **Students** identified "Treat Students Appropriately" **more often** than did teachers. Can you give a reason for this difference?

II. Differences between at-risk and not-at-risk students

1. **At-risk students** saw "Communication with Students" as **more valuable** than did not-at-risk students. Can you give a reason for this difference?

2. **Not-at-risk students** saw "Support Groups and Counseling: as **more valuable** than did at-risk students. Can you give a reason for this difference?

3. **Not-at-risk students** saw "Attendance Policies: as being **more important** in encouraging students to drop out of school than did at-risk students. Can you explain the difference in reaction?

III. Differences between effectiveness and use of strategies.

1. Students and teachers in the previous studies said that **allowing students to choose from several assignments** was a valuable activity, but it was rarely used. Can you give a reason for this difference between value and use?
2. Students and teachers indicated that **changing the way student progress is measured** would be an effective way of helping at-risk students, but that changes in the measurement of student progress were not often made. Why aren't these changes made?
3. Students and teachers indicated that **demonstrating concern** was valuable in helping at-risk students, but students indicated that demonstrating concern was only sometimes used. Can you explain this difference in perception?

Appendix B

Before starting the interviews, all interviewees should be told the following information:

1. The purpose of the interview is to help us understand differences in the perceptions of teachers and of students about ways to help students, particularly students who are at-risk of not finishing school.
2. We are here to ask a series of questions about how to help students who are at risk of not graduating from high school. Studies that have looked at this issue have found differences between what students recommend and see as valuable and what teachers recommend and see as valuable. Our questions are designed to find out more about these differences in what students and teachers think about ways to help students who are at risk.
3. The interview will be recorded so we can have a record of what was said and so we will not miss any of what you say. You have been chosen at random to respond to these questions. Your responses will help increase our understanding of how to help students succeed in school. Your responses will not be used in any way to evaluate you. Your name will not be part of the analysis or the discussion of these interviews.

Are Teachers Using Whole Language to Teach Reading?

Patricia K. Smith

A National Perspective

A lengthy period of growth in language development, extended concepts, and experiences is required to become a lifelong reader (Jewell & Zintz, 1990). Meaningful experiences to expand concepts may be achieved through whole language principles which reflect effective, purposeful language instruction. Whole language provides meaningful language experiences across the curriculum and immerses children in environments surrounded by print, thereby reinforcing the importance of reading. (Newman & Church, 1990; Smith, Rinehart, & Thomas, 1991). Because of a renewed interest in reading mastery activated by whole language, this study investigated the current practices of language instruction and the perceptions of teachers regarding whole language instruction.

Whole language is sometimes difficult to implement and maintain because it has been defined in various ways and is perceived differently by educators (DeStefano, 1981; McKenna, Robinson, & Miller, 1990). Some teachers view it primarily as a child-centered curriculum, some see it as a literature-based curriculum while others consider it a language arts approach across the curriculum. Although the concept may differ, not all teachers are waiting for a standard definition which may never evolve. Instead, they are implementing whole language as they perceive it and are developing programs which can be modified and refined through use.

The growth of whole language has been promulgated more by personal testimony than by actual research conducted in classrooms (Gunderson & Shapiro, 1988). Given the emphasis placed on whole language in today's reading research, theory, and practice, the purpose of this study was to examine the practices and perceptions of classroom teachers to ascertain those who were using whole language within their classrooms.

Method

Ten elementary schools in each of the 50 states were randomly selected to participate in the survey. The names and location of schools were obtained from a computer tape of elementary schools distributed by the U.S. Department of Education (1990-91). One teacher from each school was asked to respond to a questionnaire. Four hundred and ninety-one questionnaires (98%) were returned.

To obtain information concerning their background and school environment, the teachers were asked to indicate teaching experience, location of schools, number of classrooms, number of students per room, and the average number of students in the schools. Specific questions were asked regarding the establishment of whole language in their schools. Teachers were to indicate the length of time the whole language program had been implemented, and level of satisfaction with the total language instruction. Information regarding pilot programs which were planned or conducted, teachers' involvement in planning, changes needed, and in-service programs related to whole language was also requested. The respondents were given the opportunity to provide general comments pertaining to any aspect of whole language. The data were analyzed according to teachers' experience, school location, and pupil enrollment in classrooms and schools.

Discussion

Background data revealed the teaching experience of respondents ranged from 1 to 37 years. Experience was divided into four categories for this study: beginning teachers, 1-2 years; teachers in the critical years, 3-7 years; experienced teachers, 8-19 years; and veterans, 20+ years. The second category was termed critical since teachers who choose to leave teaching usually do so before the eighth year. The largest percentage (40%) of the schools were located in rural areas, followed by suburban (32%) and urban schools (23%). The average school had more than 14 classrooms. Over half had enrollments of more than 400 students and over 20 students per classroom.

Forty-six percent of the teachers added open-ended comments to the questionnaire. Most of these comments dealt with changing from basal to whole language instruction, the establishment of whole language instruction, teachers advocating and implementing whole language, and the pressing need for more information and resources before establishing whole language. Most comments were positive, but negative perceptions were also included.

Has Whole Language Been Established in Your School?

In response to this question, 29% of the teachers reported some degree of whole language instruction. Most of these teachers were located primarily in suburban schools, in classrooms with 11 to 20 students, and in schools with enrollments of approximately 300 students. Forty-six states reported the implementation of whole language programs. No whole language instruction was reported by teachers in Alabama, Delaware, Kentucky, and Montana. The remaining teachers, 71%, reported traditional approaches to reading, using a basal reader or a combination of approaches. Several said a basal series was mandated but they also reported incorporating whole language principles in their classrooms.

Are pilot programs in whole language being planned or conducted? If whole language was not already established in schools, the teachers were asked if pilot programs were being planned or conducted. Most reported that their school systems, not individual schools, had planned and conducted pilot programs. Although a smaller percentage of all schools had already conducted pilots, more urban schools had both planned and conducted pilots. Responses indicated that the majority of pilots are being conducted in schools with enrollments of more than 300 students and in schools with over 20 students per classroom. In some instances pilot programs were conducted in several different grade levels. In other instances pilots began in kindergarten or first grade and continued through the grades each successive year.

How Long has Your Whole Language Been Implemented?

This question was asked of teachers who reported they currently use whole language. The responses were classified into three categories: 1-2 years, 3-4 years, and 5+ years. Approximately 58% of teachers in all locations reported using whole language instruction last year or for two years. During the past three to four years, 27% reported implementation while another 12% indicated using whole language instruction during the past five years. All locations have shown an increase, with suburban schools showing the most rapid growth and rural schools the slowest.

Were teachers involved in planning the whole language curriculum? Almost all teachers, 94%, reported being involved in planning whole language instruction. Suburban teachers reported the most involvement. The largest schools, those with more than 400 students, reported the highest percentages of planning and involvement by teachers prior to implementation.

Are any changes needed in your current whole language curriculum? Over half of the respondents reported that revisions are still needed to improve their instruction. They have learned what has or hasn't worked. The belief that their total instruction was too piecemeal was also cited. Some were concerned that the change from basal reading instruction to whole language is not occurring rapidly enough. Others said more training, more information about planning and implementing, and additional resources were needed so their instruction could be changed and improved.

Rural and suburban teachers perceived the greatest need for changes in their instruction. Teachers with more than 20 students in their classrooms voiced the greatest need for changes in their whole language curriculums.

Are in-service programs in whole language provided? Of the 29% of surveyed teachers who reported implementing whole language, 90% were provided with in-service instruction related to whole language. Over half reported satisfaction regarding in-services. Suburban teachers appeared to be the most satisfied with the in-service they received. A Georgia teacher emphasized that several in-services are needed exclusively for experienced teachers who have been teaching separate subjects for many years.

Are You Satisfied with Your Total Language Program? This question, asked of both whole language and traditional teachers, did not specifically address whole language instruction. Overall, beginning and veteran teachers appeared to be the most satisfied with their total language programs. Teachers experiencing the critical years were least satisfied. Teachers in urban schools, as well as teachers in the smallest (1-7 classrooms) and largest schools (22 classrooms), expressed satisfaction. Teachers with over 20 students in their classrooms tended to be most satisfied with their programs.

Teachers using whole language instruction expressed greater satisfaction than those using traditional instruction. A Georgia teacher stated that although teachers were not completely satisfied with their whole language instruction, it is far better than any basal reader program they had used. Teachers who helped to plan whole language instruction expressed twice as much satisfaction as those who did not. Whole language teachers provided with in-services expressed more than twice the satisfaction than did whole language teachers who did not have such support. Whole language teachers who attended in-services expressed greater satisfaction regarding all themes (e.g. theoretical basis, knowledge base, classroom management techniques, and practical strategies and activities for incorporating whole language).

Open-Ended Comments

Forty-eight percent of all teachers provided open-ended comments. Some staunchly supported the basal reading approach while others were equally adamant about whole language. There was a general perception by all teachers that many still lack an awareness and understanding of the whole language process.

Positive. Those who advocated basal reading instruction reported using some principles of whole language within their total reading program. They stated they felt secure using a basal and believed the children learned best through this structured approach. Some believed that everyone need not be whole language teachers but they can be effective with reading instruction based on the latest research.

Teachers who have incorporated whole language viewed it as exciting and challenging, but somewhat frightening for beginners. Several have reported the expansion of whole language within their schools and have developed support groups to help one another. They indicated the spread of whole language instruction in school systems is occurring because of teacher demand, parent demand, and supportive principals. Others said the teachers are receptive to new ideas which will help them teach more effectively. Some reported observable results in the affective as well as the cognitive domain of students' learning. Most said the increases in excitement, achievement, and desire to read observed in the children, reflected the value of whole language.

Negative. Teachers who were comfortable using a basal reader objected to whole language instruction being forced upon them by the school districts. They were especially upset when they had no voice of choice in the decision. Teachers supporting whole language approaches complained because their school districts, school boards, and administrations did not support this philosophy. One reported the school board strongly discouraged anything called whole language but approved of the results. According to the teachers, administrators needed to be better informed. A California teacher stated that whole language instruction requires exceptional teachers to implement it correctly, however they believe too many teachers are mediocre or old-fashioned. Some believed that whole language will not succeed because of negative attitudes toward phonics by whole language teachers. Others opposed changing their methods even though whole language had been established in their schools.

Conclusions

A renewed proliferation of concern relating to reading development has prompted many teachers and schools to reexamine their reading instruction. Because they are seeking alternative methods, whole language being one option, this study examined classroom teachers' practices and perceptions about using whole language instruction within their classrooms. The teachers exhibited strong perceptions about whole language which appeared to influence their responses.

The use of whole language method is increasing. The number of teachers using whole language has increased fifteen percent during the past five years. During the past two years, whole language classrooms have almost doubled in number. This expansion has occurred most rapidly in suburban schools although urban schools currently are conducting the most pilot programs. Whole language teachers were located primarily in classrooms of 20 students or less, which appears to be a manageable number for this type of instruction.

Approximately one-third of the teachers surveyed currently are using whole language instruction in their classrooms. Half of these teachers believe changes are still needed, recognizing they are stumbling with implementation as they try to become more familiar with the method. They voiced a need for more information about whole language, and additional classroom resources so they can revise and improve their instruction.

The most satisfaction regarding language instruction, whether it was holistic or otherwise, was expressed by beginning and veteran teachers, teachers in urban schools, and those having over twenty students. Teachers who helped establish whole language practice in their schools at least five years ago expressed more satisfaction than those using traditional instruction. Whole language teachers who attended in-services reported more than double the satisfaction than did those who did not.

Summary

Researchers are continually studying the ways in which children master the reading process. Recently, the philosophy of whole language has received considerable attention, mostly because educators have not conceptualized an agreed-upon definition and have not reached a consensus regarding advantages and disadvantages of whole language. Controversy has occurred because most language arts instruction emphasizes the mastery of isolated skills and subskills instead of a holistic approach.

Whole language instruction is innovative and is not occurring automatically; teachers who advocate whole language reported they are still learning. A teacher in Virginia stated that whole language makes more sense than anything teachers have ever tried. From Missouri came a comment which synthesized what many teachers believed: "The effectiveness of whole language is dependent upon the teacher's knowledge, understanding, and belief in whole language instruction." This teacher also said that some changes were inspired by parents since many were requesting their children be placed in whole language classrooms.

Before more widespread change can occur, teachers need to question their current method of teaching, recognize a need for change, and experiment with whole language. Teachers in Illinois have devised their own instruction because they view whole language as a viable alternative to basal reading. Overall, the perceptions of teachers were positive as they observed the attitudes and successes of children who were exposed to whole language. Most of the teachers appeared enthusiastic and encouraged as students took possession of their own interests and learning. Kindergarten and primary-level teachers in Wyoming, who have practiced whole language, believe it is a natural way to learn to read. They reported the excitement and the desire to read is so evident in children that many teachers are sold on the results and are encouraging others to get involved.

"Are teachers using whole language instruction to teach reading?" This study indicated that teachers are becoming aware of whole language and increasing numbers of them are beginning to incorporate it in their classrooms. Teachers who have developed an understanding of the whole language philosophy believe it is a unique and promising framework for developing learner-based classroom instruction through which children will attain reading proficiency.

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Reading Recommendations for a Multi-Cultural Tomorrow

Kathleen Evans, Terry Bratcher

The United States has been, even prior to the subduing of the Native American, a cultural melting pot. U. S. history reflects the values of multi-cultural diversity, as do the cultures of most of the countries in the western hemisphere. Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) list several restrictions that have been placed on immigration in the past, but present the following point of view: "The United States is constantly replenishing and enhancing this rich mix of talent. In 1988, it admitted 643,000 legal immigrants, more than all other countries put together. . . Americans have not even begun to experience the real potential of their fantastic human resource mix, which will be their competitive edge in the global economy as we move toward the next millennium" (pp. 39-40). If we are to develop this competitive edge, we must teach knowledge of and respect for cultural diversity. The immigrants, the risk-takers, the innovators, the thinkers have brought social and economic vitality to our country.

In recent decades, the value of a "salad bowl" rather than a "melting pot" culture has been asserted, while conservative elements of the social structure press to maintain standard English as well as credentialling and other gates of passage. Standards can have non-productive as well as productive effects; (e.g., a French teacher who has been born and raised in France and has a French teaching degree is not allowed to teach French in our public schools). As increased communication options bring people closer to each other, it becomes the responsibility of societies to prepare their members for understanding culturally diverse people. How do we maintain standards while increasing understanding?

Futurists offer a variety of innovative strategies. Participatory learning creates the ability to participate in a learning and information oriented society. This ability to participate would help transcend social, age, and geographic differences in our society. Stahl and Clark (1987) indicate that participatory learning techniques have a positive effect on the learning of vocabulary. The trends of the present and the projections of futurists indicate that literacy constitutes an increasingly important component in the overall demands on educators. "The capacity to link thinking and expression are fundamental goals of literacy transcending the piecemeal skills that dominate practice today" (Calfee, 1987, p. 740).

Cooperative learning is a strategy for maintaining standards and increasing understanding which has a firm research base. When this strategy is formatted with group goals and individual accountability, the usefulness of cooperative learning includes (a) an alternative to tracking, (b) a means of mainstreaming academically handicapped students, (c) a means of improving race relations, (d) a solution to the problems of students at risk, (e) a means of increasing prosocial behaviors, and (f) a method for increasing achievement of all students (Slavin, 1989-90).

Negotiating meanings is a strategy which Slaughter (1989) recommends as a means of developing reflexive awareness. "Individuals who know that they are not simply in the position of passively decoding finished structures of meaning, but are actively interpreting and negotiating them, can also feel deeply involved in the process of cultural reconstruction and renewal" (p. 265). We have incorporated both methods in a program for bilingual migrant students in Illinois.

An Example from a Summer Migrant Program

We have had the opportunity to explore the dynamics of cross-cultural understandings, acculturation, and literacy in the practical arena of a mid-western, summer migrant program. This program, funded by the Illinois Migrant Education Council, is designed to compensate for educational gaps that are inherent in the life of a migrant student. Many families in this group originate in Chican, Mexico and cross over to Mercedes, Texas to enter a circuit. Some winter in Florida where they pick oranges and later, in the spring, travel to Georgia to process onions. Older children often do not register for the end of the school year and help harvest onions instead. From there, some stop in Ohio, while others come to Southern Illinois to pick strawberries. More families come to pick blueberries, "chillies," peaches, and apples. From here, some go to Michigan to pick "pickles." They return to Mexico to visit and often bring some relatives back with them. Families settle out at each point and the circuit repeats itself. The students who participated in our program were multi-cultural/multi-lingual students who were returning and new migrants (recent arrivals to this country) and settled-out migrants (former migrants who have become area residents).

The program is a full curriculum intended to meet practical as well as academic needs. Students are provided breakfast and lunch. Weekly field trips serve to acquaint them with area history, job opportunities, natural science features of the area, etc. Several hours each Friday are spent at a local beach with swimming instruction, since drowning is the second highest cause of death among migrant children (Johnson, 1985). The academic program includes health, oral language, mathematics, reading, history, science, art, and private and/or small-group tutoring in English as a second language. Enrollment includes pre-kindergarten through high school.

Summer Program 1990

Of the 29 students enrolled in our 1990 eight-week summer class, daily attendance fluctuated dramatically from a minimum of seven to a maximum of 17 (See Graph 1).

All students were of Mexican heritage, age 12 to 18. Grade levels varied from entering sixth grade to entering twelfth grade. Oral language abilities ranged from functional monolingual Spanish to fluent, low vocabulary bilingual Spanish-English. Test scores (see Table 1) indicated reading levels from illiterate in any language to biliterate with grade-school levels in Spanish and tenth-grade level composite reading scores in English. In the 1991 session (See Figure 1), 29 students were enrolled and attendance ranged from five to 15. Grade levels, the range of language abilities, and classroom setting remained the same for the two summers.

Graph 1

ATTENDANCE

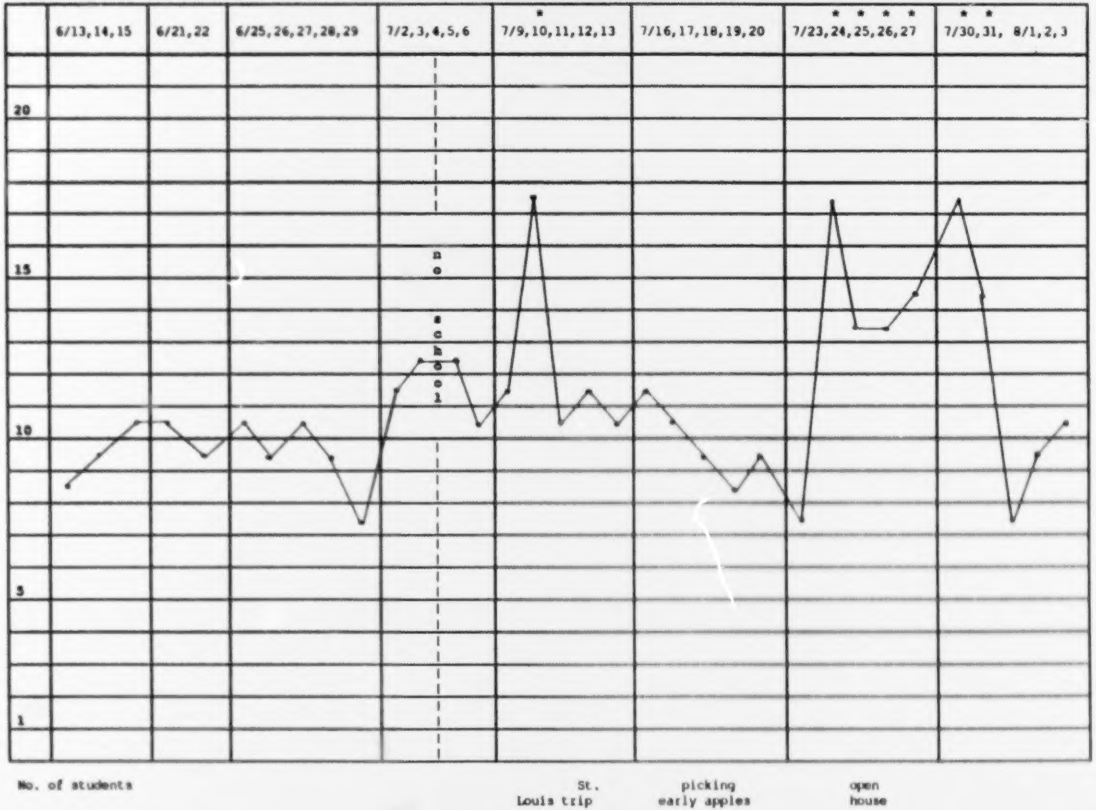


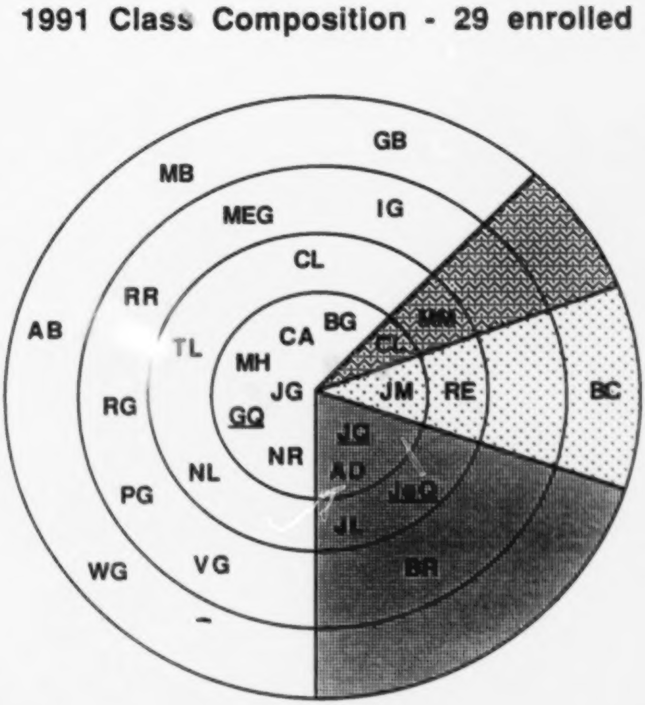
Table 1

Reading Test Scores

Student	Age	Grade	Comprehension grade level	Vocabulary grade level
STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST (ENGLISH)				
ML	17	9	3.6	7.8
NR	17	9	3.0	6.7
VG	15	9	5.3	8.2
NL	15	7	6.3	3.4
*GQ	14	10	10.0	8.9
*CA	14	9	10.4	8.2
*AD	14	7	6.3	3.8
RG	14	7	3.2	5.4
*JG	12	7	6.5	6.5
GRAY'S INFORMAL READING INVENTORY (SPANISH)				
JM	14	7	4	
MM	13	7	0	
RE	12	7	0	

*Settled out

Figure 1



KEY:

Cocentric cirlces indicate degrees of attendance with center representing those attending regularly.

▨ Non-English speaking girls.

░ Non-English speaking boys.

▓ Bilingual boys.

☐ Bilingual girls.

—— means cousins

We decided to incorporate several futurist concepts into our approach to language-reading instruction in a migrant bilingual classroom. During the first summer, the reading curriculum underwent continuous assessment and revision (Calfee, 1987) with the objective of teaching in culture-through-literature. This quickly evolved into a forum for multi-lingual students to achieve multi-cultural literacy. This form style of reading is also used in progressive businesses (Brokaw, 1991).

Students read orally for the hour each day (Ross, 1986) in an established safe environment that required participation. The subject matter students read varied from articles on current events to internationally renowned literature. During the eight-week program in 1990, the students read two full-length novels, two short novels, several short stories/articles, and Cevantes' "The Power of the Blood" in a side-by-side English-Spanish text.

The format for the reading forum (See Figure 2) evolved into the following formal structure: Everyone read orally at least one paragraph with freedom and encouragement to continue reading. No one ridiculed a reader's effort. Competent readers of English fed their non-reading neighbor words and phrases as long as their neighbor was willing to recite them. Everyone listened and, depending upon the number of books available, followed along in a book.

Figure 2: Reading Forum

EVERYONE READS

A forum for the advancement of reading comprehension for learners at many

stages of print apprehension.

RULES OF THE FORUM

Teacher models rules, techniques, and strategies.

Everyone reads at least one paragraph but is welcome to read more.

Every competent reader of English feeds his non-reading neighbor words and

phrases as long as his neighbor is willing to recite them.

MATERIALS

2 full-length novels

2 short novels

several short stories and articles

something in side-by-side English-Spanish text

TECHNIQUES and STRATEGIES

implemented functionally

sociability of reading

skimming

scanning

summarizing

translating

comprehending the conventions of print

connecting audio to visual word cues

practice at oral language formation

The main techniques used were cooperative learning and teacher modeling of all rules, techniques, and strategies. Since cooperation is an integral part of the migrant subculture, legitimatizing it in the classroom fostered self-esteem. In addition, a teacher modeled second language acquisition by actively extending her knowledge of Spanish.

Strategies such as summarization and review, translation, negotiated meaning (often in two languages), skimming, scanning, and oral language formation were all taught functionally and demonstrated to students social aspects of reading. As mentioned above, individual attendance was sporadic for several students. For example, some only came on rainy days, when there was no work. When this happened, rules were reviewed and the material being read was summarized. From time to time, the teacher would call upon someone to translate a summary or a specific word. These translations were often negotiated among several members of the class which strengthened both English and Spanish vocabulary.

After participants in the forum had read at least a third of a text so that the setting, characters, plot, and style of writing were clearly established, the teacher would explain and model skimming. Students were encouraged but not required to skim paragraphs which did not appear to advance the plot. As a change of pace, we read plays in which there was a narrator and designated readers. This familiarized students with certain conventions of print such as paragraphing and punctuation.

Many of these strategies reinforced the connection between oral language and written language.

Summer Program 1991

The second year built on the ground work of the previous year. Students who had only attended the class a few times in 1990 showed immediate recall of strategies, as well as stories learned the previous summer. One student who would not scan the previous summer immediately demonstrated that technique to the class. Because cooperation is required in other parts of their lives, bringing cooperation into learning activities validated students' lives across cultures. The result was visibly improved self-esteem, measurable in the decrease of conflict between migrant camp and settled-out residence students. Students behaved responsibly in the classroom, as part of the whole school, and in public as demonstrated in weekly field trips.

One example of this occurred on a field trip to the St. Louis Children's Symphony. The music was different from that which the students were used to--U.S. rock 'n roll and Mexican serenade. At the end of the first selection, when the conductor asked if the children liked it, AD, one of the oldest and most well-behaved students, called out, "No!" The teacher asked him if she needed to give him a lecture on public manners, but AD replied sweetly, "No, Miss, JQ already kicked me."

Immigrants need to become comfortable in their new culture, but they also must be able to accept cultural differences. To facilitate this acceptance, we read about sub-cultures within a culture in Krumgold's (1953) *...And Now Miguel* and Chu and Chu's (1967) *Passage to the Golden Gate: A History of the Chinese in America to 1910*. In 1992, we plan to expand out understandings of immigrant cultures in the United States. We will read Gates's (1966) *Blue Willow*, O'Dell's (1970) *Sing Down the Moon*, and Sorel's (1970) "Sequoyah" from *Word People*. We will read from *Hispanic Magazine* and Mexican folk tales. Our unstated goal is for students to become as gracious toward African Americans and Hondurans, etc. as they have become toward each other.

Conclusion

Our intent is to build and strengthen literacy skills through literature which provides the by-product of enculturation using teaching methods which effectively links students' cultural heritage and family situations to classroom learning. It is difficult to draw any conclusions from our observations of these eight-week summer sessions. However, it is our hope that these reflections will add to the general understanding of the complexities of the lives and schooling of migrant students. We believe with Freire (1973) that:

"Because they are not limited to the natural (biological) sphere but participate in the creative dimension as well, man can intervene in reality in order to change it. Inheriting acquired experience, creating and re-creating, integrating themselves into their context, responding to its challenges, objectifying themselves, discerning, transcending, men enter into the domain which is theirs exclusively--that of History and Culture" (Freire, 1973, p. 4).

Perhaps in searching into literature for a relevant hero, we can provide students and ourselves alike with a means of reaching into the past which reaffirms the present and energizes us to host a gentler and more gracious future.

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Lifelong Reading by Teachers as Bibliotherapy

Don Lumpkin

Developing lifelong readers stands as an ultimate, highly desirable goal which educators view as critical and toward which they consistently strive. Indeed, this has long been designated as a prime objective, paralleling the treasured goal of achieving literacy for all (Bacharach, 1990-1991). Reading teachers express regret that even when they attain success in teaching their pupils to read, many do not become lifelong readers. In fact, many read so little that fear of extinction is genuine (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott & Wilkinson, 1985).

Teachers who work to develop lifelong readers experience feelings of frustration when they observe low levels of reading performance. To avoid teacher burnout, ways to reassure teachers that their efforts are worthwhile need to be found. The flexibility of bibliotheraphy makes it adaptable to a very wide array of audiences. One of the intriguing potential applications that has received limited attention is the use of bibliotherapy by teachers and bibliotherapists themselves.

Educators have long been urged to design opportunities for students to read about situations and characters they can relate to and to read literature that might enhance positive self concepts (Lumpkin, 1984). This helps establish a setting which promotes guidance through reading, or bibliotherapy for learners (Schultheis, 1982).

Some recent efforts to use stories and excerpts from literature examining the concept of using in teacher education courses appear promising. Eanet (1991) has described how she uses imaginative literature in teacher education classes. Her initial efforts explored whether reading of selected content "appeared to stimulate reflection about teaching and learning" (p. 65). Eanet reported consistent positive responses and recommended use of story material "as an integral part of the learning experience of future teachers" (p. 65). Lumpkin (1988) found evidence to support this recommendation from analysis of responses by 141 undergraduate students in reading education classes. These future teachers selected and read books having a teaching-learning-school theme. As an aid to clarifying their understanding of learners, this class activity was rated as "extremely valuable" by 56%, "valuable" by 26%, and "of some value" by 16%. None of the students checked "of no value" or "negative value" although 2% did not respond to the survey.

In a companion study of responses by classroom teachers, Lumpkin (1988) noted a more positive rating by prospective teachers. Ninety-seven percent (97%) perceived reading and discussing a book about teaching-learning extremely valuable in understanding and accepting learners in their classrooms. These teachers, involved in planning and implementing instructional programs, also felt the reading experience could provide a positive tool in combating burnout tendencies. Lumpkin urged further research to ascertain the impact of bibliotherapy on teacher performance and on increasing longevity of teaching experience.

Currently, a study is being conducted to identify topics of major concern to groups of teachers and to match their concerns with books that portray elements that could increase their understanding of teaching problems. Where possible, selections that can be correlated with early childhood, the elementary school, secondary, and higher education are being sought. Examples of materials for teacher-bibliotherapist readings include children's books as well as those written for mature readers--as long as they connect with the problems and concerns that educators face. The accompanying bibliography represents types of books deemed appropriate for use by teachers as bibliotherapy. Effectively utilizing the bibliography would involve making suitable choices of books to match the concerns of teachers. Ideally, longitudinal studies could be designed to examine the merits of bibliotherapeutic literature for teachers. Initial research to explore the impact on teacher effectiveness could be followed by measures of length of professional service.

A strand related to "Behavior of Learners and Discipline" might start with Harry Allard's *Miss Nelson Is Missing*. In this story a caring teacher is able to express some of her basic feelings about an undisciplined primary class. After a mean and thoroughly memorable substitute, Miss Viola Swamp, uses a sharp tongue and autocratic methods to whip the class into shape, the youngsters gleefully welcome Miss Nelson's return.

Teachers can be reminded of young children's fears and anxieties by looking at Miriam Cohen's *Will I Have a Friend?* This story provides an illustration of youngsters who come to school with great trepidation. It can also be reassuring to go on to another book in this series titled, *The New Teacher* and read about children coping with uncertainty as their teacher is replaced at mid-year.

Adults and young readers are indebted to Beverly Cleary for her series of novels on Ramona and the Quimby family. Over a thirty year period of writing Cleary has brought Ramona to the third grade. Ordinary, day-to-day events and situations at school and in a modern family ring true and still hold an irresistible charm and humor.

To move to the middle grades, teachers can chuckle with Judy Blume's *Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing*. A picture of Peter Harcher's life with little brother Fudge can expand appreciation and understanding of sibling problems that pupils bring to school. Also appropriate to the middle grade is Barthe DeClements' *Nothing's Fair in Fifth Grade*. Elsie, the overweight girl in her class, is funny, sad, awkward and consistently interesting. DeClements moves ahead another year in a follow-up volume, *Sixth Grade Can Really Kill You*.

Both students and teachers continue to enjoy Paula Danziger's *The Cat Ate My Gymsuit*, published in 1974. Marcy's view of herself, her social life, weight, parents, is just "rotten," and it is inspiration to read how a remarkable teacher brings dramatic change. Then, there is a social protest theme with an unexpected but reassuring message of support from students for a teacher! Another title with which teachers as well as learners can empathize is *Today Was a Terrible Day* by Patricia Reilly Giff. Ronald Morgan is a hapless second-grade hero who suffers from acute bumbling. Readers of all ages seem to easily identify with bumbling!

Educators often declare their desire to understand learners of today. To this end, teachers can read about a blended family setting provided by Barbara Williams in *Tell the Truth Marly Dee* and other books in the series about Mitzi McAllister. A good-humored description of home and school settings can help readers see problems in this multi-faceted family which impact the lives of children in schools today.

Desire to learn and change is often coupled with concern about losing old pleasures. This can be manifested at any age level. Dan Elliott has captured the threat of change in *Grover Learns to Read*. The boy ponders the possible danger that his mother might discontinue reading to him if he learns to read for himself.

Teachers experience some of the same trepidation when they plan changes and wonder about the responses of students, parents, and the community. A provocative book from the 1950s, *The Wheel on the School* by Meindert DeJong, describes an innovative teacher who sends all of his students out to "wonder!" Set in a small Dutch village in another era, it seems to hold a message for thinking educators of any day.

Historical perspective can aid in visualizing change in schools and education as an ongoing process. A biographical novel by Jesse Stuart details his experiences teaching in rural Kentucky early in the century. *The Thread That Runs So True* has been credited with advancing education in America by vividly portraying the tremendous potential coupled with the dire needs of many schools of the time. The book has been translated into six languages for use in countries where changes in education are sought. Numerous other volumes that can inspire teachers might include:

To Sir, with Love by E. R. Braithwaite

Susan Cornish by Rebecca Caudill

The Hoosier Schoolmaster by Edward Eggleston

Pat Hawley, Preschool Teacher by Shirley Sargent

Bright Midnight by Trumbull Reed

It is hoped that bibliotherapeutic experiences for teachers can provide insights to inspire and empower them as they struggle with classroom challenges that might lead to burnout. The courage and determination to meet the challenges of education for all diverse learners needs to be sustained. Teachers deserve resources that can help them maintain and enhance qualities of accepting, believing and caring, qualities which contribute significantly to the development of skills, competencies and positive self-concepts in those they teach. Teacher education should establish an environment that sustains constructive, developmental learning episodes which foster a motivated, lifelong search for knowledge and skill in teachers (Dahlberg, 1990). Lifelong reading by teachers, as an example and as a type of bibliotherapy, holds promise for instilling those behaviors and characteristics in teachers which can help them build lifelong readers for the future!

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Books for Reading by Teachers as Bibliotherapy

This bibliography provides author, title, publisher and date of publication. In addition, the target audience is indicated in parentheses. Content depicting the "Teacher as Professional" is noted by use of the letters, TP.

Allard, Harry (1977) *Miss Nelson is Missing*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. (4-8). A dear teacher and a mean, hideous, lunatic substitute, Viola Swamp.

Blume, Judy (1972) *Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing*. NY: Dutton. (8-12). Understand sibling problems through Peter's life with little brother, Fudge.

Braithwaite, E. R. (1959) *To Sir, With Love*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice. (12+, TP). A special teacher overcomes prejudice and finds a way to help troubled, slum teens gain their own dignity as human beings.

Caudill, Rebecca (1955) *Susan Cornish*. NY: Viking. (14+, TP). Challenges and rewards of teaching in southern back country setting.

Cleary, Beverly (1952) *Ramona*. NY: Morrow. (5-8). Modern day-to-day family situations ring true, hold irresistible humor.

Cleary, Beverly (1983) *Dear Mr. Henshaw*. NY: Morrow. (8-12). Leigh Botts, in a new school after parents separate, expands assignment to write to favorite author into a therapeutic, letter-writing activity.

Cohen, Miriam (1967) *Will I Have a Friend?* NY: Macmillan. (4-8). Fears and anxieties of Paul and kindergartners about beginning school.

Cohen, Miriam (1968) *The New Teacher*. NY: Macmillan. (5-8). Portrayal of young children coping with mid-year change of teacher.

Coville, Bruce (1991). *My Teacher Glows In the Dark*. NY: Pocket Books. (10-16). A teacher out of science fiction opens extraterrestrial experiences for a "nerd" revealing genuine feelings and affections.

Danziger, Paula (1974) *The Cat Ate My Gymsuit*. NY: Delacorte. (11-17). Marcy's view of life is rotten until a remarkable teacher brings dramatic change. Social protest message of student support for teacher.

DeClements, Barthe (1981) *Nothing's Fair in Fifth Grade*. NY: Viking. (9-12). Life in school is funny, sad, awkward and interesting for Elsie.

DeClements, Barthe (1983) *Sixth Grade Can Really Kill You*. NY: Viking. (9-12). Realistic description of difficulties in school for "Bad Helen."

DeJong, Meindert (1954) *The Wheel on the School*. NY: Harper & Row. (6-12). Innovative teacher in tiny Dutch school, student-community involvement.

Eggleston, Edward (1871) *The Hoosier Schoolmaster*. NY: Hill & Wang. (TP). Classic story of schoolmaster in Midwest prior to the Civil War.

Elliott, Dan (1985) *Grover Learns to Read*. NY: Random House. (4-8). Concern about change... Learning to read may result in reduction of pleasurable time spent with Mother reading to Grover!

Fisher, Dorothy Canfield (1915) *The Bent Twig*. NY: Henry Holt. (TP). Scholarly life of midwestern college professor's family.

Freer, M. M. (1959) *School for Suzanne*. NY: Julian Messner. (TP). Portrays the satisfactions and intangible rewards of teaching.

Gates, Doris (1940) *Blue Willow*. NY: Viking. (7-12). Janey, daughter of migrant workers, has memories, desires and dreams. Teachers and schools exercise a significant impact on her life.

Gates, Doris (1945) *North Fork*. NY: Viking. (10-15). Drew attends grade 8 with predominantly Native American classmates.

Giff, Patricia R. (1984) *Today Was a Terrible Day*. NY: Viking. (4-8). Ronald Morgan, a hapless hero, suffers from acute bumbling.

Harris, B. K. (1955) *Karen's Nursery School Project*. NY: Julian Messner, (TP). Nursery school assistant looks at working conditions, qualities of teachers.

Hill, Margaret (1960) *Really, Miss Hillsbro!* NY: Little Brown. (TP). Unexpected human relationships are part of success-frustration in teaching.

Hilton, James (1953) *Goodbye, Mr. Chips*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly. (TP). Devoted, admired English schoolmaster taught three generations of boys.

Knowles, James (1959) *A Separate Peace*. NY: Macmillan. (12+). Adolescent boys at Devon School can be "their own worst enemies."

Konigsburg, E. L. (1967) *From the Mixed-up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler*. NY: Atheneum. (5-8). Comic novel about living inside Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City with accompanying problems for Claudia and Jamie.

Korman, Gordon (1987) *A Semester in the Life of a Garbage Bag*. NY: Scholastic. (12+). A poetry assignment by their English teacher leads to amazing adventures for Sean, Raymond and their school.

Paterson, Katherine (1977) *Bridge to Terabithia*. NY: Crowell. (9-14). Girl-boy classmate friendship. . . Dramatic impact of death of Leslie. . . Teacher as opener of new vistas to Jess, son in poor rural family.

Patton, F. G. (1954) *Good Morning, Miss Dove*. NY: Dodd, Mead. (TP). All in town have been influenced by a teacher who is both feared and loved.

Sargent, Shirley (1955) *Pat Hawly, Preschool Teacher*. NY: Dodd, Mead. (TP). Presents a picture of opportunities and demands of a nursery school career.

Stuart, Jesse (1949) *The Thread That Runs So True*. NY: Charles Scribner's. (TP). Autobiographical novel about a Kentucky teacher with a zeal for education and its power to transform lives. . . Rural schools of Mid-America in 1920s.

Williams, Barbara (1983) *Tell the Truth, Marly Dee*. NY: Dutton. (9-12). Good-humored description of home, school, and a blended family setting.

Scenes From a Classroom: Literature for Thinking About Teaching An Annotated Bibliography

Marilyn Eanet

As our views of good teaching practice move beyond technical approaches and the complex nature of teaching becomes more apparent, teacher educators need also to expand the teaching resources they use to help prospective teachers explore the nature and complexity of their craft. Several professionals have suggested that imaginative literature may be an under-utilized resource in teacher education programs. Tama and Peterson (1991) used literature with teacher candidates to encourage reflection on the larger social and moral implications of teaching. Schubert (1992) recommended readings about teaching, both fiction and nonfiction, as rich sources of "teacher lore"–the prospectives of experienced, reflective teachers. I have also written about my students' positive reactions to the use of imaginative literature in the teacher education classroom (1991).

The original intent of this project was to develop an extensive list of pieces of short fiction containing classroom and/or school scenes that might be useful to reading professors. The stories and vignettes can serve as demonstration passages and for encouraging teachers-to-be to reflect on the complexities of teaching. The list includes a couple of my favorites and some suggestions from colleagues and students. Most of the references, however, were located using *Short Story Index, 1979 - 1983* (1984) and *Short Story Index, 1984 - 1988* (1989). The search was somewhat random–I examined titles that seemed to hold the most promise of containing contemporary classroom scenes. Locating the stories themselves involved a lengthy effort through interlibrary loan services; the public libraries proved to be a much better source of short stories than did academic libraries.

Finding appropriate short stories proved to be much more difficult than I had anticipated. Given the characteristics of the genre, short stories are most frequently intensely emotional and focused on childhood and adolescent trauma. Thus the themes of many of the stories I located were more appropriate for a psychology course than for an education course in which a goal is to encourage reflection about aspects of teaching. My major criterion for selection were that each story be reasonably well written and of literary merit and contain content appropriate and useful for consideration in an elementary and/or secondary education classroom. Since the short story list is indeed short, I have included some novels and some non-fiction books that my teacher education students have found interesting and useful. I welcome your suggestions for additions to these lists.

Short Stories

Bovey, John. (1980). The tigers of wrath. In *Desirable aliens*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

The central character is a demanding Latin teacher in a Midwestern county day school. Quality vs. kindness is one of the issues, and the concluding scene shows the power of the words of a teacher with integrity on the life of a student.

Cameron, Peter. (1985). Homework. In *One way or another*. New York: Harper & Row.

This story, written in first person, takes the reader into the mind and experience of Michael who is at that stage of adolescent awareness in which the ironies and hypocrisy of the adult world are most vividly painful. Other characters include his father who is good about bringing things up and letting them drop. A lot gets dropped. And there is the school guidance counselor who used to be a history teacher, but "couldn't take it anymore." Unable to sort out his sadness over his dog's death and his sadness in general, Michael takes refuge in the clarity of his algebra homework.

Cisneros, Sandra. (1991). Eleven. In *Woman hollering creek and other stories*. New York: Vintage Contemporaries.

Rachel has just turned eleven, but she doesn't feel that old when her teacher's thoughtless actions humiliate her. The theme of the story is that just being older and being the teacher doesn't necessarily make a person right.

Dillon, Millicent. (1987). Monitor. In *Prize stories: The O'Henry Awards*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc.

Celia, a sixth grader, is proud of her position as Monitor of Bells and willingly agrees to monitor the class when her teacher is called away. What happens next raises an important question about power and authority in a school setting and demonstrates that being a favored child is a mixed blessing.

McGarry, Jean. (1985). Penmanship. In *Airs of providence*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Told from the point-of-view of April, the younger sister, this story is a slice-of-life account of a New England working class family. The daughters go to a Catholic school where the "penmanship nun" takes bright, creative April to account, and older sister, Margery is faced with a high school placement test for which she has little ability and high anxiety. Conflict abounds in this family of individuals whose personalities and talents are as diverse as is their handwriting.

O'Hara, John. (1984). Do you like it here? In *Collected stories of John O'Hara*. New York: Random House.

Set in a boy's prep school, this is a story in which a small-minded elitist schoolmaster uses sarcasm and indirect intimidation against a most vulnerable and undeserving student victim.

Saroyan, William. (1983). A nice old-fashioned romance, with love, lyrics and everything. In *My name is Saroyan*. New York: Coward, McCann, & Geoghegan.

It's fifth grade, and our narrator is the class clown who is being unfairly blamed for writing a poem romantically linking his teacher and the principal. To make matters worse, it's a bad poem, and it was really written by his cousin Arak who always gets away with everything.

Stuart, Jesse. (1982). Split cherry tree. In *The best loved stories of Jesse Stuart*. new York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

This wonderful story tells of a country son, the first in his family to go to high school, and his father, skeptical about "new-fangled" ways of teaching, and how the schoolmaster politely and tactfully convinces the gun-carrying father that the school is the right place for his son.

Smith, Lee. (1981). The french revolution: A love story. In *Cakewalk*. New York: G. P. Putman's Sons.

A wonderfully comic account of a new French teacher with nonconventional methods and very short skirts and her class which includes King Edward Hartless, the wildest boy in the school, and the narrator, "cultured" and "too intelligent for my own good," who is both attracted to and repelled by King Edward.

Updike, John. (1967). Tomorrow and tomorrow and so forth. In *Point of departure: 19 stories of youth and discovery*. New York: Dell Publishing Co.

Mark Prosser, a third year high school English teacher, is young and vulnerable enough to be caught up in some very human, but not very professional, emotions toward his students--scornful identification with the class nerd, resentment of the popular male athletic hero, and attraction to a bright, pretty female student. The setting is the classroom, and the topic of discussion is *Macbeth*.

Novels

Chappell, Fred. (1989). *Brighten the corner where you are*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

This is the story of a day in the life of Joe Robert Kirkman, a North Carolina mountain school teacher, philosopher, and family man. He teaches history and science, and having introduced the topic of evolution to his students, finds himself as misunderstood in the community as was his hero Socrates. There are a couple of lively classroom discussion scenes in this entertaining novel which manages to be poignant, comic, and, at times, fantastical.

Conroy, Pat. (1972). *The water is wide*. New York: Houghton Mifflin.

A novelization of the author's experience teaching on an isolated South Carolina island. The book is rich in accounts of experiences of dealing with a different culture, facing challenges of teaching children who are wise in the ways of their own island but basically illiterate and ignorant of the larger world. There is also the all-too-familiar struggle with both fearful parents and the educational bureaucracy as this teacher tries to obtain resources and opportunities for the students.

Dickens, Charles. (1964). *Hard Times*. New York: Bantam Books, (First published in 1854).

This novel is an allegorical portrayal of capitalistic exploitation during the Industrial Revolution and a strong attack on the effects of a materialistic philosophy on the human imagination. The first two chapters, titled "The One Thing Needful" and "Murdering the Innocents," are set in a classroom in which fact is all important, and they provide an extreme example of the transmission model of education.

Kaufman, Bel. (1964). *Up the down staircase*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Today's teacher education students don't find this popular novel of a first-year English teacher's experiences in an urban school as dated as one might assume (or hope)! The excerpt that I generally assign includes Chapter 11, "Pupil-Load," and Chapter 12, "A Doze of English". The latter chapter includes a letter in which Sylvia, the teacher, describes her students to a friend as well as a compilation of their written responses about what they had learned in English classes so far. This selection captures the essence of both student and teacher experience without getting into plot details.

Nehring, James. (1990). *"Why do we gotta do this stuff, Mr. Nehring?" Notes from a teacher's day in school*. New York: Ballantine Books.

This book contains many accounts of realistically reported classroom activities and dialogues. It is a novelization of the author's experiences teaching secondary social studies in a suburban setting. It is fun to read and, while hardly profound, does explore a number of important topics including heterogeneous grouping, cooperating learning, and teaching students how to do research vs. simply assigning research papers. This is a good book to recommend to students in secondary/content area reading classes. The author acknowledges the influence of the Coalition of Essential Schools on his thinking about curriculum. Nehring offers sensitive, honest, and vivid descriptions of teenage behavior and interesting accounts of classroom situations from using inductive teaching and conducting discussion to handling inappropriate behavior.

Nonfiction

Dichter, Susan. (1989). *Teachers, straight talk from the trenches*. Los Angeles: Lowell House.

This is a collection of thirty-five interviews with teachers and former teachers. Dichter directs the book toward the general public and her intention is to demonstrate the difficulties and complexities of the profession and to suggest that simplistic ideas about school reform are not likely to be successful. The overall message is depressing; most of those interviewed felt powerless and frustrated, and most of those interviewed had little good to say about their teacher education experiences. This is the book to give the student who you want to discourage from entering the profession! However, it is a source of ideas and a few of the interviews, "From the Inside Out" for example, suggest what it takes to stay alive; healthy, and productive in the field.

Freedman, Samuel G. (1991). *Small victories: The real world of a teacher, her students, and their high school*. New York: Harper and Row.

A journalistic account of a year with Jessie Siegel, an experienced english teacher, at Seward Park High School in New York City. The school is considered one of the worst in the state; the students are very poor, mostly immigrant children. Jessie is a wonderful teacher who works with the school paper and puts all she has into making a difference in her student's lives. There are excellent classroom scenes in this book–most of them literature discussions. Teacher education students can learn a lot from Jessie Siegel. Sadly, at the end of the year, she reluctantly decides to leave teaching.

Keizer, Garrett. (1988). *No place but here: A teacher's vocation in a rural community*. New York: Penguin Books.

This delightful collection of essays written by a secondary English teacher in rural Vermont provides provocative insights into a variety of issues including assigning journals, the role of parents in schools, teaching courtesy, and the balance between criticism and wonder.

Kidder, Tracy. (1989). *Among schoolchildren*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

This account of a year in the life of a fifth grade teacher is well worth reading in its entirety, and will provide stimulus for discussion about many of the major issues surrounding the profession. The chapter entitled "Awakenings" is useful in an elementary reading class because it provides an opportunity to view and critique reading and writing instruction.

Rose, Mike. (1989). *Lives on the boundary*. New York: Penguin Books.

This autobiographical account has a lot of say about what Rose labels the "educational underclass." I find two chapters particularly useful: "I Just Want to be Average" powerfully conveys the intellectual shutting off of the child who either falls behind in school work, receives inferior, or no, instruction, or simply has little expected of her/him. "Literate Stirrings" describes Rose's experiences as a Teacher Corps intern in East Los Angeles and includes a description of his efforts to improve the reading abilities of some middle grade remedial readers as an example of the dangers of labeling.

Stuart, Jesse. (1949). *The thread that runs so true*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Although this autobiographical account of a mountain schoolteacher's experiences was written in a situation in which fighting ability could be considered an essential teaching skill, it does hold more than historical interest. Stuart was a problem solver who was creative in going beyond common practice to find more interesting ways to teach and, later as an administrator, more productive ways to run country schools. It is fascinating to examine the interactions between local politics/culture and the school.

Conclusions

I have found that incorporating literature into my teacher education classes has been a highly beneficial practice. The literature has brought to these classes a dimension of reflection about students, classrooms, and learning that is not easily obtained in classes devoted primarily to methodology. Many reading educators now advocate literature-based approaches; these selections allow us to practice what we preach. Using these selections also enriches strategy demonstrations. Some of this material I simply quote and/or allude to and encourage students to use for independent reading. I have found many students responsive to these suggestions. I have also used some of the stories and excerpts from the longer material as stimuli for journal entries. I am sure there are other ways to incorporate this literature which I haven't even considered, and I invite you to join me in exploring those possibilities and in seeking and sharing other titles.

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Tama, M. C., & Peterson, K. (1991). Achieving reflectivity through literature. *Educational Leadership.* 48, 22-24.

Yaakov, J. (Ed.) (1984). *Short story index, 1979 - 1983.* New York: The H. W. Wilson Company.

Yaakov, J. (Ed.) (1989). *Short story index, 1984 - 1988.* New York: The H. W. Wilson Company.

Caldecott Medal Books (1938-1991): Some Observations

Sylvia Hutchinson, Ira E. Aaron

This report is based upon a study of the 54 Caldecott Medal books, from the first awarded in 1938 to the latest, awarded in 1991, and upon a survey of the knowledge of pre- and inservice teachers about the books. After a brief discussion of the basis for the award and a few general comments about the award, the focus will then turn upon the books themselves, including some suggestions for how they may be used in classrooms. Finally, pre- and inservice teachers' knowledge of the award books will be reviewed.

At the end of this article is a list of all of the Caldecott Medal books. References to these books will be by title and, in parentheses, the year of the award. The reader can refer to the list for author, illustrator, publisher, and copyright date of the original publication of the book. Current publishers often are not the same as the ones given in the listing.

Selected Information about the Award and the Winners

The Caldecott Medal, given first in 1938, is awarded annually by the American Library Association to the illustrator of the "most distinguished" children's book published during the preceding year. Illustrators, to be eligible for the award, must be citizens or residents of the United States. The winner and several honor books are announced at the American Library Association meeting each year in early January.

The award goes to the illustrator, but teachers, librarians, and parents who purchase and use these books--as well as the children who read them--are concerned with the text as well as the pictures. Selection committees also must consider the text and its fit with illustrations. It is not likely that a selection committee would select an illustrator when the text accompanying his or her illustrations was mediocre or failed to match the illustrations.

A check of the most recent Books in Print reveals that all 54 of the Caldecott Medal books are in print in the United States. In fact, 41 of the 54 titles are published both in paper- and hardback. Eleven titles are available in hardback only, whereas two are published only in paperback. Four titles have accompanying cassettes. Interestingly, some titles are published by several different publishers or in different formats. Several titles also are available in Spanish or in French.

Marcia Brown has won the award three times (1955, 1962, 1983). Four individual illustrators and one pair of illustrators have won the award twice. These are Chris Van Allsburg (1982, 1986), Barbara Cooney (1959, 1980), Leo and Diane Dillon (1976, 1977), Nonny Hogrogian (1966, 1972), and Robert McCloskey (1942, 1958).

The texts of the 54 Caldecott Medal books vary from original stories (32) to retellings of stories written or told by others (21) to a direct reprint (1). The retellings were mainly folk tales/fairy tales, and the direct reprint consisted of verses from the Bible, in *Animals of the Bible* (1938).

The numbers of pages in the books vary widely--from as few as 20 (*Always Room for One More*) (1966) to as many as 85 (*The Biggest Bear*) (1953). These numbers refer to pages included in the body of the book--excluding flyleaf, title, and copyright pages. These exclusions are made because the pages vary sometimes in hardback and paperback editions and in editions by different publishers. It should be stated, though, that the number of pages is a very poor indicator of the amount of text in a book because of the format and the amount of text per page on which text is used in the story. For example, on the 46 pages of *Noah's Ark* (1978), the opening page is all text and the final page contains only five words; 44 of the 46 pages contain illustrations only. On the other hand, in the 70 pages of *Animals of the Bible* (1938), 35 pages are devoted just to text, ranging from approximately 350 down to 50 words per page. Teachers concerned mainly with children's additional practice in reading text must be aware of the extent to which the story contains text.

As would be expected, Caldecott Award books devote much of their space to pictures. However, the amount of space utilized for illustrations varies from book to book. The space for illustrations is less than 50 percent in one book (*Animals of the Bible* (1938), between 50 and 75 percent in 32 books, and more than 75 percent in the remaining 21 books.

The literacy types of the book content varies also. Fifteen books may be classified as fiction, 13 as fantasy, and 12 as folk tales. Other classifications noted were biography (3 books), Mother Goose/Nursery Rhyme (3), information (2), fable (2), Bible (2), legend (1), and historical fiction (1). These classifications through 1981 are those given in *Newbery and Caldecott Medal and Honor Books*, written by Linda Kauffman Peterson and Marilyn Leathers Solt (G.K. Hall & Co., 1982). Classifications beyond 1981 were made by the writers of this article but based upon the pattern set by Peterson and Solt. It should be mentioned, however, that literary type classifications show some variation from classifier to classifer.

Caldecott Medal Books in the Classroom

Caldecott Medal books, like a wide variety of other trade books for children, can be used in instruction as well as being made available to children for independent reading. In using these books, as in using any trade books, care must be taken to avoid killing interest in a book by setting the stage for a minute dissection of plot, characters, language, illustrations, and everything else related to the book. Reader enjoyment and appreciation should be a heavy consideration in all uses of trade books in the classroom, including Caldecott Medal books.

Only two uses of Caldecott Medal books in the classroom will be discussed here. Children may be encouraged to read other books of similar literary types as those taught or reviewed in an instructional setting. The texts of these award books fit into the following literary types: Folk tales, fairy tales, fables, historical fiction, humor, fantasy, information, and others. A second use is to recommend or make available in the classroom other books having themes similar to those children have met in instructional reading, such as animals and nature.

Similar Literacy Types. At least 12 of the award titles are folk tales or fairy tales--and their origins vary widely. *Cinderella or The Little Glass Slipper* (1955) (German), *Always Room for One More* (1966) (Scottish), and *Duffy and the Devil* (1974) (Cornish) are retellings of stories originating in Europe. Retellings of Russian tales are *Babouska and the Three Kings* (1961), and *The Fool of the World and the Fly Ship* (1969). *One Fine Day* (1972), an Armenian tale, could also be considered as related though not directly of Russian origin; the tale originated before Armenia became a part of the now-dissolved USSR. Tales originating in Africa are *A Story--A Story* (1971), *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears* (1976), and *Shadow* (1983). The story for *The Funny Little Woman* (1973) comes from the Japanese and that of *Lon Po Po* (1990), a version of Little Riding Hood from the Chinese.

Humor, both in text and pictures, shows up in a number of books. In *Many Moons* (1944), the king enlists the aid of his inept court, to get the moon which his daughter craves and which will cure her illness. Two dogs, in *Finders Keepers* (1952), argue about who gets the bone they find--until they unite to fight off a big dog who tries to take the bone for himself. One little dog in a girls' boarding school is not enough to go around in *Madeline's Rescue* (1954)--until the dog has puppies. *Frog Went A-Courtin'* (1956) is an illustrated version of an old Scottish song. *Drummer Hoff* (1968), a Russian folk tale retold in verse, recounts the jobs related to a cannon and emphasizes that Drummer Hoff "set it off." In *The Funny Little Woman* (1973) laughter saves the funny little woman from the wicked oni as she chases her runaway dumpling. Another, more humorous version of Rumplestiltskin is presented in *Duffy and the Devil* (1974). *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears* (1976) relates the strange chain of events that leads to mosquitoes becoming outcasts. The artist in *Noah's Ark* (1978), humorously depicts how Noah's Ark must have looked during the 40-day voyage. Grandfather relives his old vaudeville routines for his grandchildren in *Song and Dance Man* (1989). These books could serve as extensions to instruction in understanding and appreciating humor and understanding why writers and illustrators use it.

Several of the books may be classified as biography or historical fiction. Lincoln's life is covered from birth through the end of the Civil War in *Abraham Lincoln* (1940). The family of the writer/illustrator is traced in *They Were Strong and Good* (1941), and the point is made that his forebears, though not "great or famous," were "strong and good." *Ox-Cart Man* (1980) tells of a frontier farmer and his family's yearly cycle of growing crops and making articles for sale, going to Portsmouth market in the ox-cart "over hills, through valleys, by streams...", selling everything including the ox and cart, returning home with gifts, and beginning the cycle anew. *The Glorious Flight: Across the Channel with Louis Bleriot* (1984) is based upon a real person's pioneer efforts at flight. These books may be used to cite further examples of biography and historical fiction.

Three of the award winners may be used to reinforce--or introduce--the meaning and appreciation of fables. *Chanticleer and the Fox* (1959), an adaptation of a Chaucer tale in *Canterbury Tales,* tells how the fox tricks Chanticleer, the rooster, by using flattery; the moral is "don't trust in flattery." In *Once a Mouse...* (1962), a hermit repeated saves a mouse from being eaten by changing it into an even larger animal than the predator, until the mouse--now a tiger and wanting to eat the hermit--is changed back into a lowly mouse; the unstated moral in this old fable from India, which children may be asked to state, could be "Don't bite the hand that feeds you" or "Pride goeth before the fall." Twenty one-page fables are presented in *Fables* (1981), each with an appropriate full-page illustration accompanying it. These three books, read individually by children or read to a group of children by the teacher, would be good selections to use for reinforcing an understanding of what a fable is. Furthermore, they are fun for children to read.

Five of the award-winning books may be used as examples of verse or rhyme. A child's simple prayer, in rhyme, is the text of *Prayer for a Child* (1945). *The Rooster Crows* (1946) is a collection of American rhymes and jingles, such as those children may use in counting-out games and in skipping rope. The interesting and humorous illustrations bring to life for children the several-hundred-year-old Scottish song *Frog Went A-Courtin'* (1956). When a little boy is invited by the King to visit, he asks *May I Bring a Friend?* (1965); each time he is invited, he brings a different animal friend or a group of friends. *Dummer Hoff* (1968), with lively and humorous pictures, is a cumulative tale in verse of the responsibilities of the soldiers in assembling a cannon--and ending when "Drummer Hoff fired it off."

Related Themes. Most children are interested in nature and in animals, and often instructional materials used in reading or in subject-matter instruction can serve as a springboard for further reading on these and other general topics.

For children who have never experienced snow, or for children who want to enjoy reliving a snowstorm, *White Snow, Bright Snow* (1948), *The Big Snow* (1949), and *The Snowy Day* (1963) would be good reading. In *The Big Snow*, readers also learn what animals and birds do when snow comes. An appreciation of the beauty and wonder of nature can be enhanced by reading *The Little Island* (1947), *A Tree is Nice* (1957), and *Time of Wonder* (1958). The *Song of the Swallows* (1950) revolves around a small boy's experiences with the swallows at Capistrono. A baby cub, in *The Biggest Bear* (1953), grows up to be a big bear who rejects returning to the wild--and ends up in a zoo where the small boy can visit him. All of these, in picture and text, highlight aspects of nature.

Children love animals, and a number of the Caldecott winners deal with various animals. These include *Animals of the Bible* (1938), *Make Way for Ducklings* (1942), *The Rooster Crows* (1946), *Song of the Swallows* (1950), *The Biggest Bear* (1953), *Chanticleer and the Fox* (1959), *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears* (1976), *Noah's Ark* (1978), *The Girl Who Loved Wild Horses* (1979), *Jumanji* (1982), and *Owl Moon* (1988).

Two award-winning books have Christmas themes. In *Nine Days to Christmas* (1960), a young Mexican girl, anxiously awaiting a Christmas party nine days before Christmas, selects a star for her piñata at her party, the piñata, when broken, becomes a real star--her star. A young boy on Christmas Eve night rides *The Polar Express* (1986) to visit Santa and is given a sleigh bell as the first gift of Christmas, which he loses on the way home and finds under the tree on Christmas morning; only those who believe can hear the bell ring. Both books offer good reading for children as Christmas approaches.

Native American stories are the basis for two award-winning books, and in each, brilliant colors are used in illustrations that add considerable to the story. In *Arrow to the Sun* (1975), a Pueblo Indian myth, a young boy, shot as an arrow, searches for his father, the Sun; he meets four trials to prove he is the Son. *The Girl Who Loved Wild Horses* (1979) tells the story of a young Indian girl's great love for wild horses, so great that she goes to live with the herd; when she later disappears, family and friends believe that she has changed into a beautiful mare they see running with the herd.

PreService and InService Teacher Knowledge of Caldecott Award Books

The most effective use of trade books in reading instruction obviously depends on teacher familiarity and efficiency with children's literature. In order to gain some better understanding of teacher knowledge of Caldecott Award winning titles, 60 elementary classroom teachers from 11 Georgia school systems were surveyed and interviewed. In addition, 42 preservice teachers enrolled in an undergraduate reading education course were surveyed. Each respondent was given a bibliographical listing of all Caldecott Award titles (1938-1991) and asked to mark only those titles with which they were familiar (that is, they had read the specific book and could make a teaching decision for its use.) They were allowed to respond anonymously and were assured that their responses would not influence course grades.

Of the list of 54 award-winning titles, only three were recognized by at least 50 percent or more of the preservice teachers:

(1964) *Where the Wild Things Are* (84%)

(1942) *Make Way for Ducklings* (76%)

(1953) *The Snowy Day* (72%)

Interesting, only four books were not recognized by any of the 60 inservice teachers:

(1942) *They Were Strong and Good*

(1974) *Duffy and the Devil*

(1984) *The Glorious Flight: Across the Channel with Louis Bleriot*

(1991) *Black and White*

The preservice teachers provided a contrasting range of title recognition. More than 50 percent of these undergraduate students claimed knowledge of six titles:

(1964) *Where the Wild Things Are* (91%)

(1976) *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears* (77%)

(1988) *Owl Moon* (77%)

(1963) *The Snowy Day* (68%)

(1986) *The Polar Express* (59%)

(1991) *Black and White* (59%)

There were 10 titles which the preservice teachers reported as unknown or unfamiliar to them (1938, 1941, 1944, 1945, 1946, 1965, 1968, 1969, 1983, 1984).

David H. Russell (1949) concluded that teachers tended to know few if any, trade books published in the most recent ten year period. He also noted that the most recent books recollected tended to be those learned in children's literature courses as a part of their teacher preparation programs. Even after more than 40 years, this investigation appears to support his findings. In addition, interviews with inservice teachers yielded a limited or traditional view of picture books. These teachers most often described a picture book as "wordless" and "best suited for only young children or primary grade pupils." Teachers said they do use pictures in their reading instruction, but not daily. They also said that they choose pictures from basals, not trade books, when using illustrations for instruction.

With the current emphasis on children's literature in the teaching of reading, these findings may suggest a reconsideration of the content, and methods in reading education and children's literature courses for the preservice and inservice teacher.

Summary

All of the 54 award-winners of the Caldecott Medal are currently in print in the United States. These books are excellent resources for the classroom teacher and the librarian in working with children in an instructional setting and in suggesting independent reading to children. A limited survey of pre- and inservice teacher knowledge of the books indicates that much needs to be done to make pre- and inservice teachers aware of these books.

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(1939) Thomas Handfort. *Mei Li*. Doubleday, 1938.

(1940) Ingri and Edgar Parin d'Aulaire. *Abraham Lincoln*. Doubleday, 1939.

(1941) Robert Lawson. *They Were Strong and Good*. Viking, 1940.

(1942) Robert McCloskey. *Make Way for Ducklings*. Viking, 1941.

(1943) Virginia Lee Burton. *The Little House*. Houghton, 1942.

(1944) James Thurber/Louis Slobodkin (ill.) *Many Moons*. Harcourt, 1943.

(1945) Rachel Field/Elizabeth Orton Jones (ill.) *Prayer for a Child*. Macmillan, 1944.

(1946) Maud and Miska Petersham. *The Rooster Crows* (traditional Mother Goose). Macmillan, 1945

(1947) Golden MacDonald/Leonard Weisgard (ill.) *The Little Island*. Doubleday, 1946.

(1948) Alvin Tresselt/Roger Duvoisin (ill.) *White Snow, Bright Snow*. Lothrop, 1947.

(1949) Berta and Elmer Hader. *The Big Snow*. Macmillan, 1948.

(1950) Leo Politi. *Song of the Swallows*. Scribner, 1949.

(1951) Katherine Milhous. *The Egg Tree*. Scribner, 1950.

(1952) Will/Micolas (ill.) *Finders Keepers*. Harcourt, 1951.

(1953) Lynd Ward. *The Biggest Bear*. Houghton, 1952.

(1954) Ludwig Bemelmans. *Madeline's Rescue*. Viking, 1953.

(1955) Charles Perrault/Marcia Brown (ill.) *Cinderella Or the Little Glass Slipper*. Scribner, 1954.

(1956) John Langstaff/Feodore Rojankovsky (ill.) *Frog Went A-Courtin'*. Harcourt, 1955.

(1957) Janice May Udry/Marc Simont (ill.) *A Tree is Nice*. Harper, 1956.

(1958) Robert McCloskey. *Time of Wonder*. Viking, 1957.

(1959) Chaucer/Barbara Cooney (ill.) *Chanticleer and the Fox*. Crowell, 1958.

(1960) Marie Hall Ets and Aurora Labastida/Marie Hall Ets (ill.) *Nine Days to Christmas*. Viking, 1959.

(1961) Ruth Robbins/Nicholas Sidjakov (ill.) *Baboushka and the Three Kings*. Houghton, 1960.

(1962) Marcia Brown. *Once a Mouse*. Scribner, 1961.

(1963) Ezra Jack Keats. *The Snowy Day*. Viking, 1962.

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(1967) Evaline Ness. *Sam, Bangs & Moonshine*. Holt, 1966.

(1968) Barbara Emberley/Ed Emberley (ill.) *Drummer Hoff*. Prentice, 1967.

(1969) Arthur Ransome/Uri Shulevitz. *The Fool of the World and the Flying Ship*. Farrar, 1968.

(1970) William Steig. *Sylvester and the Magic Pebble*. Windmill, 1969.

(1971) Gail E. Haley. *A Story--A Story*. Atheneum, 1970.

(1972) Nonny Hogrogian. *One Fine Day*. Macmillan, 1971.

(1973) Arlene Mosel/Blair Lent (ill.) *The Funny Little Woman*. Dutton, 1972.

(1974) Harve Zemach/Margot Zemach (ill.) *Duffy and the Devil*. Farrar, 1973.

(1975) Gerald McDermott. *Arrow to the Sun*. Viking, 1974.

(1976) Verna Aardema/Leo and Diane Dillon (ill.) *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears*. Dial, 1975.

(1977) Margret Musgrove/Leo and Diane Dillon (ill.) *Ashanti to Zula: African Traditions*. Dial, 1976.

(1978) Peter Spier. *Noah's Ark*. Doubleday, 1977.

(1979) Paul Goble. *The Girl Who Loved Wild Horses*. Bradbury, 1978.

(1980) Donald Hall/Barbara Cooney (ill.) *Ox-Cart Man*. Viking, 1979.

(1981) Arnold Lobel. *Fables*. Harper, 1980.

(1982) Chris Van Allsburg. *Jumanji*. Houghton, 1981.

(1983) Blaise Cendrars/Marcia Brown (ill.) *Shadow*. Scribner, 1982.

(1984) Alice and Martin Povensen. *The Glorious Flight: Across the Channel with Louis Bleriot*. Viking, 1983.

(1985) Margaret Hodges/Trina Shart Hyman. *Saint George and the Dragon*. Little, 1984.

(1986) Chris Van Allsburg. *The Polar Express*. Houghton, 1985.

(1987) Arthur Yorinks/Richard Egielski (ill.) *Hey Al*. Farrar. 1986.

(1988) Jane Yolen/John Schoenherr (ill.) *Owl Moon*. Philomel, 1987.

(1989) Karen Ackerman/Stephen Gammel (ill.) *Song and Dance Man*. Knopf, 1988.

(1990) Ed Young. *Lon Po Po: A Red-Riding-Hood Story from China*. Philomel, 1989.

(1991) David Macaulay. *Black and White*. Houghton, 1990.

Promoting Readership Within Public Schools: A Survey of Administrators and Recommendations for Practice

Emilie P. Sullivan, Theresa Cronan, Susan Riggs

Reading attitudes and values begin developing early in life. A supportive environment in which children are actively involved with books and printed materials helps them develop positive attitudes and interests in reading (Ribovich & Erickson, 1980). Adults and older children who display positive reading behavior serve as role models for others. Although most adults in the United States today are literate (Baroody, 1984), many people are not proliterate: They have not developed a habit of reading books for pleasure or information when this act is not related to a job or educational requirement. This phenomenon is referred to as aliteracy and is evidenced by the fact that a minority of adults is responsible for the bulk of book purchasing and borrowing. Wilson (1984), in a discussion of reasons for our nonreading culture, has suggested that a focus on reading subskills, as opposed to the global act of reading, may negatively affect children's attitudes toward reading. Boorstin (1984) notes that lack of access to books and low priority funding for libraries may be contributing factors, while Morrow (1985) suggests that teachers' and principals' attitudes toward voluntary reading may be at fault. Thus, reading authorities have various explanations for the causes of aliteracy.

If we hope to develop a nation of proliterates, people who can and do read for enjoyment and self-enlightenment, early intervention strategies which foster the habit of leisure reading are essential. Most children and their families in our society can be reached through the public schools and in school settings principals are viewed as administrative and instructional leaders (Carbo, 1984; Sanacore, 1983; Wilhite, 1984). This paper presents the findings of a state-wide survey of public school administrators in Arkansas regarding the readership practices that are ongoing in their schools.

Research Design

Initially, a semi-structured interview instrument was developed for a pilot study. In the pilot, a questionnaire was administered in person to a selected sample of nine elementary, junior high, and high school principals. Based on their responses, a revised questionnaire on practices for promoting lifelong reading interests was developed. The final data collection instrument included a description of the study, a request for demographic information about the respondents, and the "Promoting Lifelong Reading" Questionnaire which consisted of 17 check list and completion items. Respondents were able to write in additional or explanatory comments/practices.

The questionnaire was distributed state-wide to members of the Arkansas Association of Education Administrators by including it in a packet of materials mailed to association members. Questionnaires were mailed to 694 secondary and 816 elementary school administrators in two bulk mailings one week apart. The principals were asked to return the questionnaires within one month.

Results

A total of 128 completed forms were returned from association members in 70 of the 325 school districts in the state. The forms were sorted by school levels for purposes of comparing and summarizing the responses. Data from 9 of the 128 questionnaires were not used because the respondents did not fit the school category system or the forms lacked category information. Responses for each item on the questionnaire were tallied and converted to percentage of total responses by school category (elementary, junior high/middle, and high school). Arkansas is a rural state with only a few large school districts (e.g., Little Rock, North Little Rock, Springdale, Fort Smith), and these districts were represented in the sample. A summary of the results is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Frequency and Percentage of Respondents Reporting Use of Practices that Promote Lifelong Readers.

Item	Elem.School		JHS/Middle		High School	
	N=81	%	N=13	%	N=25	%
1. SSR, DEAR, USSR (school wide reading)	52	64	4	31	3	12
2. Reading aloud to student (Who reads?)	78	96	9	69	13	52
3. Integrating reading across the curriculum	43	53	6	46	8	32
4. Developing a print rich environment	22	27	1	8	2	8
5. Open access to the library	71	87	13	100	22	88
6. Holding book fairs (How often?)	77	95	12	92	12	48
7. Using book clubs (Trumpet, Troll, etc.)	76	94	9	69	7	28
8. Using trade books for reading or literature class	41	51	2	15	2	8
9. Using the newspaper as curricular material	59	73	13	100	24	96
10. Participating in Book It Program	74	92	0	0	1	4
11. Running book drives for library	12	15	0	0	3	12
12. Supporting reading in-service	58	72	4	31	10	40
13. Funding faculty membership in reading associations	12	15	2	15	2	8
14. Writing grants to acquire library/reading materials	41	51	4	31	6	24
15. Encouraging a positive reading environment	55	68	6	46	11	44
16. Involving parents & other (How?)	58	71	4	61	2	8
17. Other practices (Explain)	35	43	4	31	5	20

Analysis of Reported Practices by School Category

At the elementary level, reading aloud to students, holding book fairs, using book clubs, participating in a "Book It" program, and open access to the library were the top five practices reported by administrators (95%, 95%, 94%, 92%, and 87% respectively). "Book It" is a reading incentive program in which individual students and classes receive rewards (e.g., pizzas) for the number of books they read. The least frequently cited practices by elementary administrators were running book drives for the library, funding faculty membership in reading associations, and developing a print rich environment.

At the junior high/middle school level, 100% of the respondents indicated that they used newspapers as curricular material. Ninety-two percent (92%) reported holding book fairs, and 69% reported reading aloud to students and using book clubs. No respondents at this level indicated that they participated in a "Book It" program or in library book drives. The development of a print-rich environment was selected by only 8% of the administrators, and only 15% indicated using trade books for reading or literature classes.

At the high school level, using the newspaper as curricular material was the most frequently selected practiced (96%) followed by open access to the library (88%) and reading aloud to students (52%). The most infrequently selected practices were (a) the "Book It" program, (b) developing a print-rich environment, (c) using trade books for reading or literature class, (d) funding faculty membership in reading associations, and (3) involving parents. Only twelve percent (12%) of the high school administrators reported school-wide reading programs (SSR, DEAR, and USSR) and running book drives.

Overall, reading aloud, open access to the library, and using newspapers were reported by more than 50% of the respondents at each school level. However, sustained silent reading and reading across the curriculum decreased as school level increased. Funding faculty membership in reading associations was reported by only 8-15% of the respondents.

Involvement of parents was a frequently reported practice at the elementary school level (71%), but only 31% of the junior high/middle school administrators and 8% of the high school administrators reported parental involvement. Another contrast was noted in the use of school-wide reading practices (SSR, DEAR, USSR): Sixty-four percent of the respondents from elementary school indicated use of these practices compared to 31% at the junior high/middle school level and 12% at the high school level. Differences in reported practices by grade level were also found in the use of trade books for reading and literature classes (51% at the elementary level, 15% at the junior high/middle school level, and 8% at the high school level).

Development of a print-rich environment was not reported as a widely used method at any level. Possibly a print-rich environment was taken for granted by high school respondents where use of print materials is assumed. Some items on the questionnaire (e.g., participating in a "Book It" program) also may have been more applicable in the elementary grades than in the upper grades. However, practices which could be used at all levels such as school-wide reading or holding book fairs were not widely reported by administrators of junior high/middle schools or high schools.

Discussion of Recommendations Reported in Response to Open-Ended Questions

Analysis of reading practices described in responses to open-ended questions were classified into five categories: (a) student-print interaction, (b) curricular/policy decision, (c) print access, (d) teacher knowledge building, and (e) gimmicks. Recommendations to enhance ongoing reading practices and suggestions to promote readership at all levels are discussed below by categories.

Student-print Interaction. Reading professionals and whole-language proponents in particular believe that literacy skills are developed by reading and writing real text. Therefore, practices that involve direct interaction with print should enhance literacy. Periods of time set aside for self-selected reading have proven beneficial if the teacher also participates in silent reading at the same time (McCracken, 1970). Whether a silent reading program is classroom specific or school wide, Sustained Silent Reading (or DEAR) can motivate book reading. However, this practice was used by only a few of the secondary schools according to responses to the questionnaire. Use of traditional book reports was mentioned as a practice. Since such reports are generally used to discern if the student has actually read a book rather than gained pleasure through reading, these reports were not viewed as promoting lifelong reading. Encouraging students to solve problems or gain information through the use of trade books, in addition to or instead of textbooks, is a practice which supports student-print interaction and lifelong readership.

The practice of reading aloud to students helps develop a story schema or an understanding of the writer's logic of organization as well as presenting students with a fluent reading model. Schools at all levels utilize this practice by bringing parents and community leaders into the schools as guest readers. This practice also increases community involvement and awareness of school programs, while the use of older students as readers for younger children also gives a meaningful purpose for interacting with print while enhancing reader fluency and self-confidence.

Educators sometimes fail to consider the benefits of writing for the reading program. Writing allows students to become authors, to think as authors think, and to become more efficient readers. Student-authored books and classroom or school-wide publications of all kinds can assist in this process and several administrators mentioned writing across the curriculum as a supporting strand for lifelong reading.

Curricular/Policy decisions. Curricular/policy decisions affect teaching strategies and materials. Utilization of non-school related materials such as trade books, newspapers, and magazines for instruction, help students see the relevance of reading outside the school setting. Although the majority of respondents at all levels indicated use of newspapers as curricular material, the use of trade books for reading or literature classes was low in secondary schools.

Print access. Print access is essential for an effective literacy program. A majority of the schools at each level recognize this and have policies of open library access. However, print materials should be accessible not only in school libraries but also in classroom collections, in hallways, on bulletin boards, and generally throughout the school to create a print rich environment. An elementary school principal gave an interesting example of saturating the environment with print. In his school, shelves were built in the hallways to house old readers and other books. Children were free to borrow such books on an honor system or read them as they waited in hallway lines. Book fairs, library drives, and grant writing, which help fund new book purchases, are among other practices which ultimately increase print access. For the individual students and classroom collections, book clubs are another means of obtaining print materials.

Teacher knowledge building. Principals can demonstrate their commitment to literacy instruction by funding professional reading organization memberships for faculty members, providing in-service reading-related instruction for teachers, and by encouraging grant writing for acquisition of reading materials. In-service opportunities at the elementary level frequently focus on literacy topics, however, reading instruction at the secondary level is often regarded as synonymous with remedial reading instruction. Thus, good practice would suggest that all levels of education could benefit from literacy focused in-service instruction, particularly at the secondary level where teachers might not have been exposed to content reading instruction.

Gimmicks. Schools often resort to gimmicks in order to encourage increased reading among students. Pizza Hut's "Book It" Program provides pizza coupons for students who read a required number of books. Some classes have contests to see which student reads the most books. Other teachers give extra credit for extra reading or tangible rewards for reading completed. In an effort to publicize the importance of reading, principals sometimes contract with students promising to do the outrageous, such as kissing a pig or milking a cow, if a reading goal is attained. While the word *gimmicks* connotes frivolity and lack of substance, the purpose is to draw attention to books. Once the student becomes aware of books and is involved in reading, it is hoped that the process will become self motivating and lead to lifelong reading.

Summary and Conclusions

As a result of this survey it was found that readership is promoted in Arkansas' schools with many positive and effective on-going practices. Administrators at all grade levels tended to support the practices of (a) open library access, (b) use of newspapers for instruction, and (c) reading aloud to students. Some of the practices to enhance lifelong reading decreased in use as grade level increased. Practices which decreased with increasing school level included (a) participation in school-wide reading programs such as SSR, (b) use of trade books for reading or literature classes, and (c) involvement of parents and others with the schools.

The promotion of reading as a lifetime habit is a generally accepted goal of most reading programs today. Since habits develop over time and with practice, school administrators might do well to regard the practices in use at other levels of instruction. Time for both meaningful and pleasurable reading is a valuable commodity which can be ensured by those who guide reading programs at all levels of schooling.

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Assessing Job-Related Basic Skills: Job Trails as an Example

Eunice D. Askov, Bernice P. Sheaffer

According to *America 2000: An Education Strategy* (1991), the future workforce includes many who are functioning at a level too low to qualify for entry level positions in the workplace. School reform will not solve the problems faced by those citizens of the United States who are already out of school and whose basic skills levels are inadequate for employment–individuals who now may find welfare as their only means of supporting their families (Johnston & Packer, 1987).

Adult learners who lack basic skills must be brought into educational programs and–remain long enough for gains to occur. Quigley (1991) found that a major reason for non-participation of adults in education programs was that the adults had memories of past failures in school. An adult education program that differs from the traditional experiences found in school is needed.

A functional context literacy approach, in which literacy skills are integrated with relevant content such as work-related tasks, has been advocated as a method by which basic skills can be presented to adults in a way differing from the methods used in public schools. Functional context literacy research shows that integration of basic skills in a vocational context increases not only the basic skills but also the employability of learners (Sticht, 1987). Burghart and Gordon (1990) compared the effects of functional context programs and traditional programs in educating minority women who had many barriers to employment. One program used an integrated model connecting job skills with basic skills; the other programs were run traditionally with basic skills taught before vocational skills. After following the case histories of 4,000 women for six years. Burghart and Gordon found the integrated program had large impacts on educational level, employment and earnings while other non-integrated literacy programs showed no corresponding significant impacts.

Another promising trend in providing adult literacy instruction is the use of technology. Recent research indicates technology-aided education can be extremely successful (Askov, 1986; Askov, Maclay, & Bixler, 1987; Bixler & Askov, 1988; Brown, 1990; Maclay & Askov, 1987; Maclay & Askov, 1988). An extensive evaluation of computer-based instruction (Turner & Stockdill, 1987) shows that computers offer a "face saving" way to learn basic skills effectively and efficiently. While technology may be responsible for the loss of jobs, it may also offer the means of upgrading individuals' basic skills, thereby enabling them to find employment or improve employment status. When this instruction is designed to fit the context of workers' needs in their present and future job situation, the computer offers advantages not only of privacy and self-pacing but also of familiarity with computer operations. Feeling comfortable with computer operations enables an individual to make faster progress in a training program that may require use of computers (Askov & Turner, 1989).

Development of Job Trails

A newly developed basic skills assessment, *Job Trails*, combines functional context literacy with technology. It is a job-specific computer assessment in reading, writing, and math at the mid-literacy level (reading grade levels 4-8). The Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy at The Pennsylvania State University developed *Job Trails* with funding from the Appalachian Regional Commission, an economic development agency with federal-state partnership funding.

The assessment addresses job-related basic skills in five job domains and targets adults who have entry-level jobs or who are just entering the job market and are seeking entry-level jobs. The five specific job domains represented in *Job Trails* were identified as being among the fastest growing entry level jobs in the United States; these are health care, clerical, food service, retail sales, and maintenance.

To determine basic skills needs of entry level employees, basic skills task analyses were performed for each selected job domain. Institute staff visited job sites (including spending the day in a janitor's closet), interviewed supervisors and workers, collected forms, manuals, and other print materials, and reviewed training materials to determine the critical job tasks and the basic skills required to perform them. The basic skills task analyses served as the basis for the development of the computer-assisted assessment materials.

The material is presented in the form of an assessment, with specific feedback given after each activity. If answers given by learners are correct, they are told that they have given the correct answer and are given a reinforcing comment. If the answers are incorrect, the correct answer is given and the adult learners are shown an explanation of the problem.

Questions are programmed on an Apple® Macintosh™ using Authorware Professional™ and are transported to an IBM™. Learners used IBM or IBM-compatible equipment with a mouse for clicking (to select an answer choice), dragging (to move a phrase into an answer position), and pull-down menus (to choose the next activity).

Although the questions resemble tasks to be completed on the job, they are actually measures of the users' basic skills. All questions are keyed to Workplace Basic Skills Competencies developed by CASAS (Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System, 1989), a nationally validated adult education curriculum management system.

Adult learners using *Job Trails* have complete control of their progress through the courseware; the units and subunits can be completed in any order. Users can stop at any time, sign off the computer, and then later pick up where they left off. Information concerning the user's progress is automatically collected on a student data disk. The collected information includes the units and subunits completed, all answers to open response questions, and the user's basic skills scores. The instructor can easily retrieve this information from the *Job Trails* main menu.

When learners complete *Job Trails*, they or their instructors can print a diagnostic chart that includes a list of the basic skills assessed in the completed tasks and the learner's performance on each basic skill. If students score below 85% on any basic skill, the program automatically prints a list of print-based materials that target that basic skill.

Pilot Testing

Job Trails was installed on computers in 14 different Pennsylvania agencies in a total of 22 different sites. The goal of the pilot testing was to answer the following questions:

- Can a functional context computer assessment be integrated into existing adult education programs?
- Will adult learners respond positively to this form of assessment?

- Will this type of assessment help adult learners understand the basic skills they need to improve in preparation for employment?

More than 100 adult learners used *Job Trails* at the pilot sites; 79 adult learners completed questionnaires concerning their use of the program. Twenty-four instructors were trained in the use of *Job Trails* and were interviewed at least once. Twelve of theses instructors were asked to complete a six-page questionnaire. The pilot site programs included basic literacy programs, adult basic education programs, and G.E.D. programs, so the functioning level of the adult learners using *Job Trails* differed depending on the type of program. *Job Trails* was placed in a wide variety of environments representative of those found in Pennsylvania, including rural areas, small towns, suburbs, and cities. Pilot sites included school districts, intermediate units, JPTA/JOBS Service Delivery Areas, and rehabilitation centers. Adults with disabilities were served in two sites.

Institute trainers installed *Job Trails* on computers at each site and provided instructor training. Trainers encouraged program staff to call the Institute if they had any questions or problems. Institute staff visited each site at least three times to interview instructors and adult learners and to have both groups complete questionnaires. They modified *Job Trails* several times during the pilot testing in response to information gathered from interviews and questionnaires. As changes were made in *Job Trails*, updates were installed and further training was given.

Results

Question One: **Can a functional context computer assessment be integrated into existing adult educational programs?** The ultimate goal of many of the pilot sites was appropriate. Even with cases in which the instructional format of the pilot site did not involve functional context techniques, *Job Trails* was used successfully.

In one program the adult learners were functioning at a reading level lower than the targeted level. At this site, tutors sat with the adult learners as they proceeded through the program. The reports from the instructors and the adult learners from this site were positive.

In general, comments on the questionnaires completed by the instructors and adult learners were positive, especially comments on questionnaires completed after the fourth version of *Job Trails* was in use. The instructor questionnaires addressed the following issues: (a) learner/computer interaction, (b) learner control, (c) screen design, (d) content, and (e) administration. On the instructor questionnaires, the most positive response for each question received a score of 1, and the least positive response received a score of 4. Questions on learner/computer interaction received an average score of 1.85; the learner control average score was 1.92; the screen design average score was 1.98; the content average score was 2.00; and the administration average score was 1.67. The least positive comments came from pilot sites with adult learners who were functioning in basic skills above the target range. Some of these adult learners, however, found the program interesting because it gave them insight into future job demands.

Question Two: **Will adult learners respond positively to this form of assessment?** Adult learners' responses to questionnaires and interviews provided information to answer this question. All (79) adult learner participants completed questionnaires measuring their attitude toward *Job Trails*. Two separate questionnaires were administered: (a) a 24-item questionnaire completed by 50 adult learners who used one of the first three versions of *Job Trails*, and (b) an 11-item questionnaire completed by 29 adult learners who had used the final version of *Job Trails*. The questionnaires were read to the adult learners as they completed them. The first questionnaire included questions aimed at further refinement of the program. The second questionnaire contained many of the same questions as the first questionnaire, but it was more of a summative rather than formative evaluation instrument.

One question on the first questionnaire was "Which would you rather do, take a written reading and math test or use *Job Trails*?" Not surprisingly, 44 of the 50 respondents stated that they would rather use *Job Trails*. What was surprising, however, was the unwritten response to that question when it was read to the adult learners. First, most did not look at *Job Trails* as a "test." Many also did not see it as "school work" at all. When one adult learner was asked about the sections in which she had to complete an invoice including computing sales tax and finding the total, she said, "That's not math. That's what I would do at work." "What is math?" she was asked. "That's the rows of problems you have to do in a book," was her answer.

To the question, "Did you enjoy using *Job Trails*?", thirty-nine adult learners responded "yes," 10 responded with "maybe yes," none replied "maybe no," and 1 answered "no." In interviews, even when adult learners pointed out areas in which they had some difficulty with the program, they overwhelmingly reported that they enjoyed using the program.

Question Three: **Will this type of assessment help adult learners understand the basic skills they need to improve to prepare for employment?** The answer to this question was obtained through questionnaires and interviews; two questions on the formative questionnaire related directly to learners' understanding of the basic skills needed for employment. The first, "How much did you know about your job area before you used *Job Trails*?" was answered in the following way: "A lot," 10; "some," 26; "a little," 10; and "nothing," 4. The second question was "How much do you know about your job area after using *Job Trails*?" The results were as follows: "A lot," 32; "some," 8; "a little," 8; and "nothing," 2. In the second, summative questionnaire, two questions measured adult learners' perceptions of how much they learned about their job area. The first question was "*Job Trails* helped me know the reading, writing, and math I would do in a job." The responses were as follows: "Yes," 16; "maybe yes," 11; "maybe no," 1; and "no," 0. The second question relating to this issue was, "I understand job duties more after using *Job Trails*." The responses were: "Yes," 18; "maybe yes," 10; "maybe no," 1; and "no," 0. These questions indicated that the adult learners believed that the computer-assisted assessment helped them learn more about the skills they would need on a job.

Some written responses to the question, "What was the best thing about *Job Trails*?" also added insight into the perceptions of the adult learners. A woman at a rehabilitation center wrote: "It helped me learn about the *clerical profession [sic]* and it will make my learning just a little easier." A woman for whom English is a second language wrote: "What I like best about *Job Trails* is that it helps me understand what type of jobs I would need to know concerning clerical."

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be reached after examining data reports from this project.

***Job Trails* was successfully used in a variety of adult basic education programs.** *Job Trails* was pilot tested in 22 different sites in a variety of environments. It was used with adult learners who had a variety of problems: some were on welfare, some were disabled, some were deaf, some had not completed school as children, and some spoke English as a second language. Reports from the various programs were favorable. Reports from urban areas did not differ from reports from rural areas. Instructors of individuals who are disabled found the program just as useful as other instructors; adult learners with disabilities could successfully use *Job Trails* and were enthusiastic about the program. It also was successful with high level students for whom English is a second language (ESL).

Computer operations must be kept as simple as possible or the program will not be used by many instructors. All pilot sites had computers before becoming pilot sites for *Job Trails*. There were great differences, however, in (a) the degree to which instructors used these computers, (b) the level of instructors' computer knowledge, and (c) the level of comfort the instructors felt in using computers. Complicated computer operations were not used by instructors. Once the operations were simplified, they were used more often.

***Job Trails* was more successful in programs that used it as a scheduled part of the program instead of as supplemental material.** In the most successful sites, sites where *Job Trails* was used, frequently and instructors were positive. *Job Trails* was used by most students at a specific point in their program. In one site, for example, it was used by all students before they actually started their classes. On the other hand, at a site where *Job Trails* was used infrequently and the instructors were negative, the program was used by students independently whenever they wanted to use it.

The full potential of *Job Trails* is not yet known. During this project, *Job Trails* underwent many modifications in response to information collected during the formative evaluation. One instructor stated, "The improvements made in *Job Trails* were just fantastic. Problems we had were addressed," Several versions of the program were installed in program computers and tested; the final version that was distributed has several new features. Because this project focused mainly on providing the best software possible, the latest version was not on site long enough to collect sufficient data to determine its full impact. Longitudinal data is necessary to determine if the entire package made significant differences in the training and employment of learners. More research is needed to fully assess the impact *Job Trails* has on programs and adult learners.

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Developing Lifelong Literacy: Some Stories Inspired by Roger Schank's *Tell Me a Story*

Wayne Otto, Barbara Williams, Grace Balwit, David Gustafson, Sarah Dowhower, Roger Eldrige, Kaybeth Camperell

(This topic was addressed in a panel presentation at the 1991 meeting of the American Reading Forum. Formal presentations of the panelists and a reaction to the presentations and discussion follow.)

I. Wayne Otto: Introduction to the Topic and to the Panelists' Stories

"Once upon a time a very intelligent computer scientist proclaimed that stories are not just something we read to put our children to sleep, nor just something we read in literature classes. Rather, they are the thing that lies at the heart of human intelligence." To understand intelligence, this scientist said, "We need to understand stories: Their structure, their acquisition, their retelling" (p. 14-15). So begins Robert J. Sternberg's (1991) review of Roger C. Schank's book, *Tell Me A Story: A New Look at Real and Artificial Memory* (1991).

Schank does indeed tell a remarkably readable story of the role and function of stories in enabling and shaping intelligent behavior. To borrow a few more words from Sternberg: "According to Mr. Schank, smart people are able to absorb large numbers of stories that are applicable to various kinds of problems, store these stories so they can be retrieved later and then retrieve the appropriate stories as needed.

New situations remind intelligent people of stories from their past, which they then use to understand their new situation . . . (Schank) deals with a practical side of intelligence that is often ignored, and shows that we can understand intelligence better by examining people's behavior in their everyday lives than by giving them trivial test problems." (p. 14)

In line with the 1991 conference theme, our proposal was to use the insights Schank shares in *Tell Me A Story* as inspiration for, well, speculating about the role and function of stories in shaping the development of lifelong readers. We promised to share personal experiences and insights as we examined ways that stories and the pursuit of stories figure in our struggles to become lifelong readers, our commitment to sustain lifelong reading, and our efforts to nurture the development of lifelong reading in our own children and our students. We promised to tell our stories.

At the outset, an implicit point of agreement among the panelists was their shared belief that lifelong readers are story seekers. Still, they weren't sure that they, as declared lifelong readers, could fulfill the promise to be story tellers. There was reason to be optimistic, though, as they approached the task. They were wondering, for example, about the extent to which school experiences figure in the development of story seekers--and whether certain school experiences are likely to have greater or lesser impact at different levels of chronological/social/academic development. And they wondered, too, how it is that some story seekers appear able and inclined to assimilate and retrieve stories in ways that clearly enable and shape intelligent behavior while others who may be equally avid seekers do not. There was plenty of grist for some stories.

The stories the panelists actually told turn out to be very introspective, very personal, and sometimes insightful. Best of all, the stories are certain to call up more stories from others who read them. Roger Schank should be proud.

These are the stories.

II. Barbara Williams: Her Story

Tell Me A Story is Roger Schank's attempt to explain how we store, retrieve, tell, listen to, and change our 'stories'--our knowledge and beliefs--and how these activities are very likely a strong indication of our intelligence.

I read *Tell Me A Story* the same week I read Milan Kundera's *The Book of Laughter and Forgetting*. Schank's exposition kept reminding me of Kundera's narrative. And then Kundera reminded me of Schank.

Kundera's story and Schank's ideas about how and why people tell stories were reinforcing one another. Clearly, it was an intertextual experience.

For example, Schank argues that we listen to other people's stories only to call up our own stories to say back to the teller. We are not really listening, Schank claims, once we have in mind what our response will be.

After I read Schank's ideas about the way people listen, or rather don't listen, I read Kundera's description of Tamina, a character who chooses to forget her past. As a result she listens differently than she would if she were to bring her past experiences to conversations.

> You know what it's like when two people start a conversation. First one of them does all the talking, the other breaks in with "That's just like me, I..." and goes on talking about himself until his partner finds a chance to say, "That's just like me, I..."
>
> The "That's just like me, I..."s may look like a form of agreement, a way of carrying the other party's idea a step further, but that is an illusion. What they really are is a brute revolt against brute force, an attempt to free one's ear from bondage, a frontal attack the objective of which is to occupy the enemy's ear. All man's life among men is nothing more than a battle for the ears of others. The whole secret of Tamina's popularity is that she has no desire to talk about herself. She offers no resistance to the forces occupying her ear; she never says, "That's just like me, I...". (p. 80).

My experiences with Schank were being recalled by my experiences with Kundera. I focused upon aspects of one work, which, in turn, enlarged the significance of parts of the other. But then Schank might say I was merely using parts of what I listened to (read) to reinforce what I already believed to be true.

Although Schank's idea of our inadequacy as listeners strikes me as debasing, even bleaker was my discovery that I was one of those persons whom me (and Kundera) writes of. I fit the description. I observed myself in conversation with acute awareness that I was listening to others' stories only to be reminded of a story in my own schema of organized experience to say back. How self-serving, I thought.

On the other hand, I wondered if reading, which is a sort of listening, might be a superior way to attend to another's ideas. Reading, after all, is done where a reader is not required to talk back to the author. Thus the reader/listener's attention may be paid more fully to what the author/teller has to say.

But when I decided to pay better attention to how well I pay attention when I read, I found, as the schema theorists and reader-response people have been saying, that I pay more attention to the parts of a story or exposition that I can relate to because of my own experience or beliefs.

For example, being a parent of two daughters, I read with especial interest about Schank's belief that we adults too often explain away children's curiosity. Schank claims that by offering explanations for children's questions we reduce their wonder about the world. He believes that we should instead answer children's questions with . . . questions.

So, one afternoon when I was fresh with this Schank opinion, my five year old daughter and I were doing our ritualistic parking meter plugging. I supplied the coins, she the meter pole shinning and plugging. In so doing she queried, "Mom, how does the money come out?" Eyeing the construction of the meter so that I might supply an accurate answer, I began to explain. But I stopped myself in the nick of time, sparing my small daughter's wonderment rather than explaining it away. "How do you think the money comes out, Elizabeth?" I asked her proudly. Elizabeth thought about this, and then replied, "I don't know. That's why I asked you." Persevering, I asked her, "How might they get the money out, Biz?" Elizabeth stared at the meter with irritation this time, then she looked back at me, and with a measure of condescension in her voice, replied, "Mom, you have been in this world longer than me, and you understand more things than me and that is why I'm asking you?" Of course. Five cents of meter time later I concluded that rather than nurturing my daughter's wonderment, I had frustrated her sensibilities.

But then, Schank says that intelligence is intimately connected with failure. I knew what I needed in nurturing Elizabeth's corroded curiosity. After five years of thoughtlessly explaining things away to this innocent child, I needed a new plan. Schank would be pleased. (Seeking a new plan is a good thing in his opinion, another one of those characteristics that separate the "intelligent" from the "dull"; and while reading Schank, his readers certainly would hope that they might align themselves with his intelligent.)

In fact Schank suggests that it is only when we are in flux about something that we are open to changing our beliefs or rearranging our knowledge. Even then, he says, we are more likely to change our views by calling back up and retelling to ourselves our own stories rather than by listening to the stories of others.

In the spirit of this self absorbed view of ourselves as story tellers and selective listeners, I turned to my sporadically kept journal. I turn to my journal when I need to sort out my thinking. The process of writing about what perplexes me often serves the purpose of clarifying. I was wondering if Schank might have missed a critical dimension of how those in flux may actually come to "understand."

But then I argued back to myself that I was merely providing an example for Schank's argument. I was, after all, telling or retelling myself stories in my journal. I was perhaps as bone headed as Schank makes us all out to be. Well, maybe he doesn't. Perhaps I just perceive that he does. Anyway, in paging through my journal I came upon the most recent entry, which is, alas, a quote from Kundera. Kundera is musing about why we are, all of us, potential writers.

> The reason people write is that everyone has trouble accepting the fact he will disappear unheard of and unnoticed in an indifferent universe, and everyone wants to make himself into a universe of words before it's too late. Once the writer in every individual comes to life (and that is not far off), we are in for an age of universal deafness and lack of understanding. (p. 106)

I decided against writing in my journal. Instead, I wondered about the shared view of Kundera and Schank. Clearly both of them see our need to express ourselves, and less important, it seems the need for someone to be the receiver of that expression. Yet reading is receiving (of course not the stimulus-response kind), and especially generous and humane act when compared to the aggressive, self-centered talk that Kundera and Schank insist we engage in. Because reading captures us in that rare state of reception, it strikes me as all the more important an activity. Equally important as reading, it seems to me, are our choices of what to read, the kind of experiences we choose.

The intertextual and text-to-life experiences I have described illustrate that my reading choices (well, Schank wasn't really my choice, but Kundera certainly was) caused me to enlarge certain life experiences (parenting), refine certain understandings (my notions of listening and talking), and create certain stories of my own.

Schank might say that I am only reinforcing my already held beliefs by selectively using and modeling his ideas to support my own. Kundera would likely say my reading is just what he wants it to be--a provider of immortality (well, not really) as well as audience for his writing.

> I read that Kundera's most recent book is titled *Immortality*. Schank has another book out also. I have forgotten that title, but I read a review and heard him speak about it on a radio talk show. (I don't think this new one has any Woody Allen quotes, and I thought the Woody Allen quotes were the best part of the earlier book.) In

> remembering Kundera's next title and forgetting Schank's I am doing exactly what Schank writes about. "The trick in reading is knowing what to forget. . ." (p. 240).

III. Grace Balwit: Her Story

In his work with real and artificial memory, Roger Schank grapples with this question: "What makes one person's memory better than another's?" For many years I, too, wondered why some students not only were able to remember what they read but also were able to relate book to book and character to character, while other students, when asked to respond to shared readings, just shrugged their adolescent shoulders and said, "I dunno." And they didn't know. Schank states that one answer to the questions about differences in ability to remember has to do with "labeling and search" techniques. Labeling, the "card catalog tags" that we give to events to be remembered, facilitates the search for and retrieval of a memory. Schank further states that how we label or index memories to be stored depends largely on how we attended to the event initially. Heightened attention makes possible greater variability in the construction of indices; the more complex the labeling system, the richer and more accessible are the memories. Search systems can only find memories that have labels pertinent to the new event, the reminding event. Our task as teachers, then, is to encourage complex labeling, labeling that will provide many tags that will aid future retrieval of memories. But how?

Most teachers dream of teaching so artfully that students will easily recall the memories of experience, the lesson or story. Schank suggests that the desired complex labeling is more likely to occur when there is time to "mull over" the material. Could mulling time be a critical key? Time to ponder, to examine from different angles, to relate experiences in the reading classroom to experiences in life, may facilitate an attentive labeling facility. But do we take time for "mulling over" a text, or do we as teachers hurry on to produce more and more visible work? Do we like grades in our gradebooks (visible proof of our industry)? In our haste, or in the name of efficiency, do we attempt to provide our own labels for students' experiences with discourse? As I mulled over Schank's thesis I was reminded of my first experience with middle school "remedial" readers.

The Story

I was new to the world of the remedial reader. They were new to middle school. We came from different worlds. I had been consorting with gifted students and they with "their kind." I read lots of books and they none. They had lost hope and expected reading to be a dreary process. I couldn't imagine why anyone wouldn't want to go on a tour of the universe of discourse. I viewed reading as a delightful trip and they as a walk down the gangplank of humiliation. But we were stuck with each other for the semester, so together we hit upon a plan. We decided that we'd read exciting adventure stories and skip the study sheets; tentatively, warily we started. Gary Paulson's *Hatchet* had worked well with my gifted students and so I began to read aloud. And read aloud again. And then read to the students again, each time stopping at a cliff hanger chapter end. Requests were made to continue, but I did not. Instead, I forbade the reading of the resolution. Soon the students, who by following in their copies of the book had mastered much of the vocabulary, were sneak-reading ahead. Interest had captured them.

Each day I read aloud, again and again until they were hooked into an exciting survival tale that mirrored some of their survival struggles. As we went through the book, I read aloud less and they read silently more. Each day almost twenty minutes were spent mulling over the story. No tricky questions to demean the learner. No worksheets to reduce the story to items that could be graded. But good conversation about an exciting book. Nancie Atwell describes it as the "dining room table" approach. And a feast it was. Many of the students confessed to never having read a book in its entirety. So we read lots of books. I read aloud and they would jump in when they could. We talked about the stories, we lingered in the event. Our responses were different as were our lives; our labels for the memory of the stories were constructed out of our differing experiences with text. But in addition to our individual labels we began to have some similar labels as we shared our books, our responses to them and our lives.

These remedial readers began to indicate intertextual thinking as they built a reservoir of good experiences with books. This indication of cross indexing was poignantly evidenced by Chris, supposedly brain damaged and regarded as learning disabled by those who decide such things. During a discussion of Marion Dane Bauer's *On My Honor,* Chris demonstrated the ability to think inter-textually when he compared the protagonist's response to death to that of the protagonist's in Rawl's *Where the Red Fern Grows*. "Billy Coleman woulda never done that!", he asserted, then went on to compare the texts and delineate the characters. This richness of response could only have come from the complex labelling that Chris had done. Indexing that had occurred because of mulling time. And because of conversation about books.

Lifelong readers! Did these young people learn to embrace reading as joyful occupation? I believe they did. As I followed their progress through the middle years, I found out about their increased use of the school library and engaged in more conversations about books with them. They still find school a difficult place to be, but they have found that books can transport them beyond the walls of their academic humiliation. Time to mull over text, time to respond to that which the text evoked, time to speak of that response, time to tell their own stories and construct those complex webs of meaning, put flesh on the dry bones of reading instruction. For the students and for myself, mulling yielded remembrance.

IV. David Gustafson: His Story

In his book, *Tell Me A Story*, Roger Schank contends that our memory is made up of a series of files that contain various structures which we somehow index and are able to retrieve, sometimes successfully and other times not. Last night I had an experience that suddenly enabled me to successfully retrieve experiences I had 43 years ago, but which I could never specifically recall. Now, as I sit at this computer on a bright February Sunday afternoon in an emotionally-charged state, I can relive those experiences. Let me share with you my story of what I have learned and of a person I have always treasured.

Approximately one year ago, I was writing a "Commentary on *Insult to Intelligence*" by Frank Smith (1986) for the 1991 *American Reading Forum Yearbook*. My remarks centered on Smith's description of how children should be invited to join the "Literacy Club." Now I find myself discovering and sharing with you my own personal invitation to join the Literacy Club offered to me by my second grade teacher, Helen Jalonen, back in about 1948 at Central Elementary School in Ironwood, Michigan.

Throughout my college years and later career as a teacher, every once in a while I would find myself in some group with some speaker or teacher asking the question that teacher educators are prone to ask: WHO WAS YOUR BEST TEACHER AND WHY? I always would write "Helen Jalonen," but I never knew why. I would just write "She was a warm person." I had little memory of what went on in that second grade classroom--only a feeling of comfort; but I never forgot the name of my second grade teacher.

It was about 1976, at the traditional Polish Christmas Eve gathering of my relatives in the Ironwood, Michigan area, that I first became aware of why I remembered Helen Jalonen. In the midst of conversing with my relatives, my mother (who taught second grade in county schools for over 30 years and who was held in high esteem) asked me what courses I taught that semester at the University where I work. I replied that I had taught a remedial reading course, among others. She laughed and said, "Wasn't that funny, since you once were a remedial reader yourself!"

I said, "Gees! Don't say things like that, Ma! It's bad for business!"

It was then that my mother told me about how I got off to a very bad start with reading in first grade and how she "arranged" through the administration that I would spend second grade in Miss Jalonen's room. As far as I know, once I had completed second grade, I did not have any problems with reading. She said Miss Jalonen would spend time at recess and after school working with me on "phonics" and "other things." Well, then I knew why I remembered the woman who went the extra mile with me. She had given freely of her time and made me a successful student: End of story—or so I thought until last night (February 8, 1992) when I learned the rest of the story!

At the American Reading Forum Conference in December I decided to share the story of my second grade teacher who was possibly the key person responsible for my presence at a national conference of reading professors. Then in late January I found myself wondering if Miss Jalonen was still living in Ironwood. I rather doubted it, since 44 years had passed since I was her student; but I had to check. A phone call to my cousin confirmed the fact that, yes, Helen Jalonen was alive but ill. My cousin said that Helen's sister from Hurley, Wisconsin, could answer my questions. So it was last night that I finally made contact with Helen's sister, Elaine, and experienced an "awakening."

Schank says, "To tell a story, you must have labeled it properly, stored it away with a name that will allow it to be found, possibly many years later, when some process calls its name" (p. 84). The phone call to Helen's sister was part of the process that brought back to mind many of the rich experiences that were mine in that unique second grade classroom. Ironically, Schank's book was also part of this process; it set the stage for the action that followed.

As Elaine spoke of her sister Helen and her teaching methods, my mind was suddenly filled with clear pictures of hands-on experiences, such as writing newsletters and bringing them home. As she talked on, it sounded like someone reading out of a book written by Frank Smith, Lucy Caulkins, Donald Graves, Jane Hansen, or numerous others who currently write about the importance of integrating the curriculum and tying the language arts together in a holistic fashion. That, in fact, was what my second grade experience had been.

Back came the memories of the daily question posted on the door for all of her students to see as they entered. Usually the questions dealt with science, a special love of Miss Jalonen. Hers was a classroom of language in motion with everyone contributing and highlighted by her daily reading to us. Hers was a classroom where "hands-on" was a rule:

Where students wrote stories cooperatively and contributed to a newsletter that went home with them; where forts were built when forts were studied; where everyone felt like a pilgrim at Thanksgiving time; and where science was a process and a part of daily life. In short, hers was a classroom where students gained self-esteem, because everyone was treated as an individual and carefully nourished by a gifted teacher who not only saw promise, but also carefully nourished it. She made her pupils feel good about themselves by creating an environment of success.

Having described her classroom, permit me to describe her. At age 78 she resides in her hometown of Ironwood, Michigan. In 1933 she graduated as salutatorian of her high school class. This was at the height of the depression and her father had just gotten laid off from his job, just short of the 25 years needed to get a pension. There was no money to send Helen to college. However, when the school learned this, she was informed that some money had been donated to the school to help a needy student. This scholarship enabled her to attend Northern Michigan College and to earn her teacher's license. Every penny spent in college was kept track of in a little book and, though it was neither required nor expected, she repaid the school for the scholarship bit by bit out of her $90 a month teacher's salary so that some other needy student could go to college as she had. Her first classroom contained 51 pupils and she was worried when the county supervisor came to observe. She needn't have been. After observing, the supervisor asked: "How have you managed to teach these children to read so well?"

Here was a truly master teacher from the start and she was my mother's gift for a whole year--or was it for a lifetime? Thanks, Miss Jalonen! Thanks to you too, Ma! I salute you both.

V. Sarah Dowhower: Her Story

In *Tell Me A Story,* Roger Schank, maintains that human intelligence revolves around scripts filed in the mind. A characteristics of smart people, he says, is their ability to pull a story from their memory and use it to help sort out and come to terms with new experiences. From these remindings we gain new insights about the world around us.

As I read *Tell Me A Story,* I was reminded of a quotation from Santayana (actually a story by Schank's definition): "Those who forget the past are condemned to repeat it." In turn, that bit of wisdom reminded me of a theme I often hear as a college reading methods professor when I interview students about how they learned to read and how they feel about themselves as readers:

"School was not where I learned to read or where I became a lifelong reader. In fact, school was a place that turned me off to reading not only in the elementary and high school, but also in college."

> Indeed, my development as a lifelong reader and my love of reading did not come from school. For instance, when I was in second grade, my teacher told my mother that I was having great difficulty learning to read. She based this on the round robin reading sessions that were the whole of her reading instruction. I was so afraid of making a mistake when called upon to read that nothing would come out of my mouth. When words did spew forth, my reading was halting and often filled with errors that the teacher immediately corrected–to my horror! Consequently, I had severe stomach aches throughout the year and hated school and reading class with a passion. Amazingly, I read fluently to my mother at home each night!

When I ask my junior pre-service elementary students to tell me their experiences when learning to read, their stories have a similar theme: I learned to read in spite of the educational system, despite the methods used at schools. The following is just one of many poignant stories echoing this message:

> I honestly believe that I did not truly learn to read and write in schools. We were taught our dipthongs and diagraphs and I filled all my worksheets. We read aloud round-robin style and I was ridiculed in front of everyone for pronouncing the ch in orchard like the ch in orchid. I learned to read by reading. I devoured every book I could find at home, at school and at the public library. When I had consumed all of the juvenile literature, I battled the librarian until she allowed me into the adult literature. I learned to write by reading, too. And though I rarely wrote anything, I talked to myself incessantly. I believe that the melody of the literature I read became a template for composing the music of words within my mind. If I learned anything about reading/writing (or life), it was in spite of my schooling. (Kathleen Kuhlman)

If, as Santayana says, we are condemned to repeat the past when we forget what has happened, then experiences such as mine and Kathleen's suggest that seasoned university professors and beginning teacher must not forget their personal reading stories. In addition, if novice reading teachers are not exposed to sensible practices at the university and if they do not see models of exemplary teaching of reading in their practicums and student teaching, then the sad stories about children who learned to read in spite of, not because of, what went on at school will continue to be told.

We need to remember the sad stories about reading denied through inappropriate teaching and to create new stories, happy ones, about reading attained. Then we can use our stories to learn about and to show the way to becoming lifelong readers.

VI. Roger Eldridge: His Story

My story is one I share with my undergraduate reading methods classes. I share it for two purposes: (a) to encourage students to think about their early experiences with reading instruction in order for them to recognize that what they know and believe about reading and reading instruction has foundation in their experiences; and (b) to point out some of the questionable content and methods that are employed in primary grade reading instruction. This is my personal story of how the reading instruction I received shaped my elementary garde reading behaviors.

My first exposure to reading was in the first grade. I do not remember my parents spending any time reading to me. We had books at home, but there were few stories appropriate for children. Additionally, I thought my parents were too busy trying to make ends meet and didn't have time to read to me. My teacher, Miss B., introduced me to reading. To a six year old, Miss B appeared to be quite elderly. (I did discover in later years that Miss B. had been four or five years from retirement when I was her student.) Miss B. taught in a self-contained first grade classroom, and one of her responsibilities was to teach reading. I remember Miss B. as always having a smile on her face, except during reading group time. Then, she appeared to me to be very stern, continually correcting any mistakes a child made as he/she read aloud.

Miss B. had three reading groups and she met with each group daily. Reading group instruction was held in the front of the room. Chairs were arranged, side by side, in a permanent half circle. At the opening to the half circle stood a large easel holding what appeared to be large pieces of cardboard. The cardboard pieces were held together by two large silver-colored rings located at the top of the cardboard pieces. The cardboard pieces contained words and pictures. I remember the first three pieces of cardboard very distinctly. On the first was a list of words, printed large in black ink. No pictures were displayed on this page. On the second piece of cardboard was the printed word DICK and the picture of a cleancut, blond-haired, blue-eyed, freckle-faced boy smiling out at the students. The third page contained the printed word JANE and a picture of a golden-haired, blue-eyed little girl who smiled out at the audience.

Each day my reading group, the second group called to the front each day, came up front to receive instruction. My peers and I walked quickly to the front, toting along with us the hardcover book "Dick and Jane." Members of the group sat on assigned chairs arranged in alphabetical order according to each child's last name. The reading lesson always started with the group looking at the easel. Miss B. stood next to the easel, pointed to each word, said each word aloud, and then asked the students to repeat each word. Miss B. proceeded through the list of words until all the children had had an opportunity to read the words aloud. I remember the easel appearing to be much taller than Miss B. and that she struggled to turn each cardboard page.

At the conclusion of the chart reading, Miss B. would pull up a chair, sit to one side of the half circle, and proceed to call on each student to stand in front of his/her chair and read aloud from the "Dick and Jane" book. Each day Miss B. proceeded alphabetically around the half circle. I always read directly after Pat D. To this day, I remember Pat D. This girl made an impression on me. She was taller than most of the boys in the class. She was thin, with long blond hair. Her most memorable feature was her ability to read rapidly and flawlessly. Pat's fluid speed reading and the praise that Miss B. always seemed to heap on Pat is vividly etched in my mind. Another impression I had was that I seemed to struggle to identify each word when it was my turn to read. Frequently, Miss B. would interrupt me and correct a word I had misidentified. After I read, Henry G. read. Henry was a bespectacled boy who was rather slow both afoot and in this thinking. Henry experienced an even more difficult time reading than I did.

The reading order of Pat, myself, and Henry was followed day after day. Frequently, I thought my reading was regressing as Miss B. seemed to be interrupting me more and more regularly. My only pleasure in the reading group was knowing that Henry followed me and he consistently appeared to perform less well than anyone who preceded him. Reading with the group made me nervous, particularly when Pat was reading--flying through the pages of words and pictures. I realize I did not read well--stumbling over the words--and when I compared myself to Pat, I knew my achievement was pathetic.

I don't remember the time frame, but one day Henry was involved in a reading group incident. Henry was dismissed from the half circle, never to return to our group. He took reading instruction with another group of students.

The round robin reading in alphabetical order lasted the entire year. The impact of this experience influenced the rest of my elementary school career. I never liked reading or considered it important and I know I did not perform well through the fourth grade. In fact, my memory of actually reading in school is non-existent for grades two through four, even though I can readily recall the teachers' names and some incidents from each grade level.

Initially, these memories were recalled when one of my undergraduate students asked me to tell about my early reading experiences. I had asked the students to recall their early reading instruction. I did not need to think very long, as the early reading group incidents, people, and instruction readily flowed into my mind. Since then, I have continued to use this exercise to help students discover where some of their reading beliefs come from. I had found that students often use their experiences to rationalize either why they would or would not try an activity in their own classrooms.

VII. Kaybeth Camperell: Reprise

A reprise is a return to an original theme. In this instance the theme concerns insights about reading instruction the panelists gained from Schank's *Tell Me A Story*. The panelists' addressed this theme in three different ways. David, Sara and Roger told stories about their personal memories of learning to read. They drew on Schank's definition of stories as experiences we learn from, suggesting that teachers' memories of beginning reading can be used as cases for understanding how early reading experiences can have positive or negative effects on young learners. Grace took a somewhat different stance. She drew on Schank's theory to explain why she thinks she was able to foster the reading development of a group of poor readers. By providing students "mulling time" to talk and think about what they read, she feels she helped develop intertextual thoughts about the memories of good experiences with books.

"Intertextual thinking," I sense, is seeing connections between different stories or texts so that aspects of one text enlarge the significance of parts of other texts. Barbara's story best illuminated this notion as she craftily weaves a tale of how self-absorbed Schank's view of human understanding, learning and remember really is. Most striking is her reminder to us that reading, compared to writing, is a receptive act in which people can journey beyond their own personal experience, travel back and forth in space and time, and learn how to learn from the experience of others.

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The Portrayal of Ethnic Characters in Newbery Award-Winning Books

Cindy Gillespie, Nancy Clements, Janet Powell, Becky Swearinger

One needs only to pick up a copy of the latest newspaper to read about conflicts in our country and others around the world which occur as a result of racial or cultural differences. In the United States, cultural differences are central to the essence of our society--a society that, on the whole, values ethnic heritage and diversity. However, for some people, racism, bigotry, and stereotyping have become a way of life. These people may be responding in such negative manners because they do not understand, or perhaps they fear, people of different ethnic backgrounds.

Our public schools have become a microcosm of ethnic diversity. Most classrooms in the country, from kindergarten to college, are composed of students from a variety of ethnic backgrounds. Cullinan (1989) refers to the composition of today's classrooms using a salad bowl metaphor: ". . . diverse elements blend together but each retains its distinctive flavorings . . ." (p. 575). Educators at all levels have been challenged to adapt to the multicultural classroom and to teach acceptance and tolerance of people from differing ethnic backgrounds.

At the college level, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 1992) has made provisions for colleges and universities to assume a leadership role in encouraging multicultural education programs for undergraduate and graduate students. NCATE adopted standards in 1979 which made provisions for instruction in multicultural education in courses, seminars, directed readings, laboratory and clinical experiences, practicum and other field experiences for the educator.

One question that emanates from the NCATE guidelines is: When should children be taught understanding and acceptance of ethnically and culturally diverse people? The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD, 1977) suggests that children's views about ethnicity and cultural diversity are influenced by environmental factors such as the home and community. Thus, children's views are ingrained before they come to school. ASCD recommends that the goal of multicultural education should not be to change children's views, but to encourage an understanding of people of different cultures and to students in their ability to deal with people of different cultures.

A second question that needs to be answered is: Can reading multicultural literature promote lifelong reading? Experience and research tell us that the development of lifelong readers begins at an early age. Children's reading habits begin when they are very young and are continued throughout their lifetimes. One way that children can be encouraged to become lifelong readers is to provide them with meaningful reading experiences. Many children who are members of ethnic minorities have difficulty finding books which provide them with meaningful reading experiences or which relate to their own experiences. Focusing on ethnicity in children's literature provides students with stories that more closely resemble their life experiences and can assist in promoting lifelong reading.

Another obvious question that arises is: How can multicultural education be incorporated into the public school classroom? This question has been answered indirectly by Bruno Bettelheim (1977) in his book, *The Uses of Enchantment: The Meaning and Importance of Fairy Tales*. Bettelheim argues that, second only to parents, books provide the majority of information children learn about their ethnicity. Cullinan (1989) suggests that it is important to have multicultural literature in schools because the stories may shape reader's views of themselves and their world. She adds that if children never see themselves in books, then subtly they are being told that they are not important enough to appear in books.

While it would be impossible to evaluate every children's book ever written to determine the ethnic groups represented, it is possible to evaluate some collections of books that would most likely be found in public school libraries. One such collection is the Newbery Award winners.

The purpose of this investigation was to determine which of the Newbery award-winning books (1922-1991) contained major and/or minor characters of various ethnic groups, and how the ethnic characters were portrayed. Two categorizations systems were developed: One to identify ethnic groups and the other to evaluate how the characters were portrayed. The categorization system used to identify ethnic groups in this investigation was based on the Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Survey (United States Department of Education, 1990) ethnic group classifications. These are described below.

1. White (not of Hispanic origin): Origins in any of the original people of Europe, North Africa, or the Middle East,
2. Black (not of Hispanic origin): Origins in any Black racial group,
3. Hispanic: Origins of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American or other spanish culture regardless of race,
4. Asian/Pacific Islander: Origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, Indian subcontinent or Pacific Island, and
5. American Indian or Alaskan Native: Origins in any of theoriginal peoples of North America who maintain cultural identification through tribal affiliation or community recognition.

The "White" category was altered to reflect current thinking by Norton (1991) who defined multicultural literature as "literature about racial or ethnic minority groups that are culturally and socially different from the white Anglo-Saxon . . ." (p. 531). Therefore, for the purposes of this investigation, "White" was defined as "Origins in any of the original people of Europe, North Africa, and Middle East whose native language is not English and are not of Hispanic origin." Groups represented in the Newbery winners include Polish, Bulgarian, Hungarian, Italian, Moroccan, Dutch, and Danish.

The categorization system used to determine how the major and minor characters were portrayed was divided into four categories: (a) positive, (b) negative, (c) balance, and (d) neutral. A positive portrayal was defined as the ethnic group being portrayed through the use of positive descripters throughout the story. A negative portrayal was considered to be derogatory remarks or words with negative connotations to describe an ethnic group. A balanced portrayal indicated that there were some negative and some positive comments made about the ethnic group. A discussion of the ethnic group with no positive or negative connotations was considered neutral.

Another issue which had to be resolved before the investigation could begin had to do with perspective. Adams (1981) indicated concern for the manner in which an older book should be evaluated multiculturally. She states:

> Some stated that it should be evaluated from a historical perspective, accepting cultural stereotypes if they were true of the time

> period in which the book was written. Others stated that because older books read today are indeed read with a modern mind, then such books must be evaluated in terms of the cultural realities of today (p. 7).

For this investigation, the later viewpoint was adopted: Books were evaluated in terms of the cultural realities of today.

Each of the Newbery award-winning books was first read for the purpose of determining which ethnic group was represented. The characters were identified and categorized as to whether they were major or minor characters. Then the portrayal of the characters was analyzed to determine if it was positive, negative, balanced, or neutral. Each entry was categorized under the appropriate ethnic group, followed by the date the book won the Newbery Award, the author's name, the analysis of the characters in the book (positive, negative, balanced, neutral), and a summary.

Black (Not of Hispanic Origin)

Major Characters

Amos Fortune: Free Man 1951 E. Yates Positive

This book chronicles the life of Amos Fortune (1710-1801), who was captured by slave traders at age fifteen, and sold at an auction. He became a free man at age sixty. When he died, he was a well-respected community member. Amos, a deeply religious, hard-working man with a good attitude, overcame many obstacles, became an expert tanner, and learned to read and write.

Sounder 1970 W.H. Armstrong Balanced

This story about a poor black sharecropper's family is set in the rural South in the late nineteenth century. The father steals in order to feed his family and is arrested in front of them. His dog, Sounder, is wounded. Although battered, the family does not fall.

The Slave Dancer 1974 P. Fox Negative

Jesse Bollier, a Creole, recalls the summer of 1840 when he was press-ganged aboard a slave ship bound for Africa and played his flute while the slaves were exercised or "danced". The atrocious treatment of the slaves is chronicled from their capture throughout the journey aboard the slave ship.

M.C. Higgins, the Great 1975 V. Hamilton Positive

Mayo Cornelius Higgins, a Black boy, meets two strangers. The first is James who explains to M.C. that the slag heap behind his house is inching its way towards the house. The second is a Black girl named Lurhetta who talks of the big city and life away from the mountain. M.C. learns to take pride in his family and discovers that he truly loves his home and must work to preserve it.

Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry 1977 M.D. Taylor Positive

This story is a realistic portrayal of a Black family during the 1930's. Racial tempers are flaring and Cassie and her family are caught up in it. There are detailed descriptions of the prejudices and injustices aimed at Blacks. The culprits of much of the racial violence are the White store owners from whom Blacks must buy supplies. The Blacks realize that fighting violence with violence will not work.

Maniac Magee 1991 J. Spinelli Balanced

Jeffrey Magee arrived in Two Mills, a town racially divided into the East End and West End. Maniac doesn't understand why Blacks called themselves Black and why he was called White. The colors of Blacks he found were "gingersnap, light fudge, dark fudge, acorn, butter rum, cinnamon, and burnt orange." (p. 51) Maniac found at least seven different colors on his own skin; none of them were what he would call white. Maniac tried unsuccessfully to alter the townspeople's views.

Minor Characters

The Voyages of Dr. Dolittle 1923 H. Lofting Balanced

Bumpo, a Black man, joins Dr. Dolittle on his voyages as an educated man who needs a break from school because "Algebra hurt his head and shoes hurt his feet." (p. 150) Tommy liked his funny Black friend who had a grand way of speaking and enormous feet. When Bumpo found a stowaway, he wanted to strike him over the head and throw him overboard; then he wanted to salt and eat him. Bumpo was told "that those things were not done on White men's ships." (p. 166)

Hitty; Her First Hundred Years 1930 R. Field Balanced

Hitty is a doll who tells the story of the first one hundred years of her life. During a part of her life, Hitty is found by a couple of "Negro" boys. The boy named Cooky takes Hitty to his sister, Caroline. She is described as looking like "Topsy in Uncle Tom's Cabin." (p. 174) Conversations in Black dialect are held about how Cooky got the doll. Hitty recalls that the family "sang strange, and often sad songs occasionally about Biblical characters." (p. 175)

The Westing Game 1979 E. Raskin Balanced

Sixteen people, who appear to have nothing in common, are brought together and told that they are heirs to the Sam Westing estate. They are divided into pairs and each pair is given a set of clues. The pair who discovers the truth about Sam Westing's death will inherit the estate. Among the heirs is Judge J.J. Ford, a Black woman who is the daughter of a former Westing servant and whose education was paid for by Sam Westing.

A Gathering of Days 1980 J. Blos Positive

This is the journal of a young girl, Catherine Hall, which spanned the years 1830-1832. During these two years, she encounters and helps a runaway slave and deals with the issue of slavery. Catherine's father favors resettlement in Africa for the freed slaves. Her uncle believes the free slaves should have a choice as he says, "Free man means free; as free as any man." (p. 45)

Dicey's Song 1983 C. Voigt Neutral

This coming-of-age story centers around Dicey Tillerman and her family. Dicey's best friend is Wilhelmina, a Black girl in her class at school. Initially, Dicey is uncomfortable with the Black girl's attempts at friendship.

American Indian or Alaskan Native

Major Characters

Waterless Mountain 1932 L.A. Armer Neutral

This is the story of a Navajo Indian family and the coming of age of Little Singer. Navajo customs, traditions, religious beliefs, and ceremonies (particularly the wedding traditions) are discussed.

Rifles for Watie 1958 H. Keith Balanced

Jefferson Davis Bussey joins the Union army during the Civil War. The major character, Watie, is a Cherokee, and the minor characters are Creeks, Seminoles, or mixed blood, Blacks, Pins (full blood Cherokees), and Choctaws. Full bloods are portrayed as lazy; "They lazy. All they wanta do is live like old time Indians. They raise little mess corn so family have cornmeal . . . to eat. . . . They jest wanta hunt and eat," (p. 94). Mixed blood and intermarried whites run things in the nation . . . "not like brush Indians. They know how to live."

Island of the Blue Dolphins 1961 S. O'Dell Neutral

This is an adventure and coming of age novel about an Arawuk Indian girl who spends eighteen years alone on a rocky island off the coast of California in the early nineteenth century. Readers gain an understanding of the Indian culture through the descriptions and explanations of her survival tactics.

Julie of the Wolves 1973 J.C. George Neutral

This is the story of a thirteen-year-old Eskimo girl's struggle to survive the northern slope of Alaska with help of a pack of Arctic wolves. Julie, the major character, provides great insight into Eskimo life through her struggle to survive.

Minor Characters

The Voyages of Dr. Dolittle 1923 H. Lofting Balanced

Two groups of Indians, described as Red Indians, are encountered when Dr. Dolittle and his companions arrive on Spidermonkey Island to search for Long Arrow, the Indian who can talk to animals like Dr. Dolittle. After the crew finds Long Arrow, they engage in a battle with the other tribe of Indians on the island. One of the groups of Indians is perceived as reasonable while the others are war mongering.

Hitty; Her First Hundred Years 1930 R. Field Balanced

Hitty encounters five or six squaws dressed in moccasins, beads, and blankets who were "very fat and kind, rather brown and had somewhat untidy hair." (p. 20) Later she finds herself on an island as a goddess of an Indian tribe.

Caddie Woodlawn 1936 C.R. Brink Positive

This is the story of events in Caddie Woodlawn's past. Much of the story centers around Caddie's and her family's relationship with Indian John and his tribe. At one point in the story, the townspeople are discussing recent Indian attacks in other parts of the country. They generalize about Indian John and his tribe and want to attack. Caddie does a great deal to diffuse a potentially disastrous situation with the friendly and peace-loving Indians.

The Matchlock Gun 1942 W.E. Edmonds Negative

Edward Van Alstyne is a ten-year-old boy who is defending his family during the French and Indian War in upper New York. The Indians in this story are portrayed as savages. Twice, reference is made to the fact that they don't wear "breeches". (pp. 9, 22) Further references to Indians portray them as animals.

Asian/Pacific Islanders

Major Characters

Shen of the Sea 1926 A.B. Chrisman Negative

This collection of Chinese tales explains topics as how sea demons were captured, how a king sought an heir, how a prince used his friends, how a boy's imitations affected him, how men are deceived by greed, how a woman saved her kingdom, and how some men became kings. Inventions such as printing, chop sticks, gun powder, tea, kites, and china are explained. Most of the stories portray the Chinese as greedy, violent, and deceitful.

The Cat Who Went To Heaven 1931 E. Coatsworth Neutral

This story is about a Japanese artist who is asked to paint a picture of Buddha. The book focuses on the religious significance of Buddha and the animals who believed in Buddha. The Japanese are portrayed as deeply religious people, evidenced by the considerable thought and time put in to the painting and the subsequent approval of the painting by those who commissioned it.

Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze 1933 E. F. Lewis Neutral

This story is about a Chinese boy, Young Fu. There are many descriptive passages about the ways and traditions of the Chinese, and their feelings toward "foreigners". . . . All their men wear jackets and loose trousers and their women clothe their bodies in men's skirts. Everything they do is the opposite of accepted custom. . . But they are as all other barbarians: They have no polite rules of conduct, and we of the Middle Kingdom can feel pity." (p. 32)

Call It Courage 1941 A. Sperry Positive

Mafatu, a young Polynesian boy, has been afraid of the sea since it took the life of his mother when he was a baby. He is labeled a coward by his people, so he leaves the island in a canoe to prove his courage. He finds his courage through several adventures and returns home fearless. Mafatu's people, the early Polynesians, are portrayed as courageous and humble.

Minor Characters

Hitty; Her First Hundred Years 1930 R. Field Balanced

During Hitty's travels, she finds herself in Bombay, India. There she sees beggars and throngs of robed and turbaned men. She also sees "half-naked men with their legs or arms tied up in knots or with their bodies twisted in a manner both grotesque and horrible." (p. 83) She finds herself in the company of a Hindu snake charmer before she is bought and taken back to America.

The Westing Game 1979 E. Raskin Neutral

Among the heirs to the Sam Westing estate are the Hoos, an oriental couple who own an oriental restaurant and who sued Sam Westing for stealing an invention.

Hispanic

Major Characters

Secret of the Andes 1953 A.N. Clark Positive

Cusi, an Inca boy, searches for his family, only to find the truth in an ancient Incan saying, "Grieve not if your searching circles." (p. 113) He realizes he has a family with the old man who raised him and his llamas. Cusi learns it is his destiny to protect and raise the llamas for his people. The Inca Indians are portrayed as humble, full of grace, protective, compassionate, and generous.

. . . And Now Miguel 1954 J. Krumgold Positive

The main character, Miguel Chavez, is a twelve-year-old boy who is anxious to prove himself a man by accompanying the other men to the mountains with the herd of sheep for the winter grazing. This story concerns a family with Spanish ancestry living in New Mexico. The family is portrayed as poor, but hardworking and family oriented.

Shadow of a Bull 1965 M. Wojciechowska Neutral

Manolo Oliver is a young lad who has a destiny. His father was the greatest bullfighter in Spain, and Manolo must fight the bull when he is thirteen. No one knows Manolo is a coward, and everyone in the town expects him to grow up to be a bullfighter like his father.

Minor Characters

Smoky, the Cowhorse 1927 W. James Negative

Smoky, the Cowhorse's owner and friend was Clint. One day Smoky was stolen by a "half-breed". (p. 207) The thief was described "being a half-breed of Mexican and other blood that's darker." (p. 207) This man was a thief who "cussed" (p. 209) a great deal. He stole stock, changed the brand, made them travel long miles and beat the animals which left physical and emotional scars on the animals.

White

Major Characters

The Trumpeter of Krakow 1929 E.P. Kelly Polish Positive
Tarters Negative

This is the story of a Polish man and his family's life in Krakow after the invasion by the Tarters. The Tarters are "short dark men with shaggy beards and long hair twisted into little braids . . . they had hearts of stone and who knew not mercy, pity, tenderness, or God." (p. 3) They are referred to as a savage band of warriors with hearts of stone who came through like a horde of wild beasts driving people from their homes. Andrew and his family are depicted as hard working and family oriented.

Dobry 1935 M. Shannon Neutral

Dobry a Bulgarian boy, wants to be an artist. His mother does not want him to be an artist, but finally realizes his talent and sends him to school. This story discusses some of the culture and traditions of the Bulgarians.

The White Stag 1938 K. Seredy Negative

This story of the Hungarian race is for "Those who want to hear the voice of pagan gods in wind and thunder, who want to see fairies dance in the moonlight, who can believe that faith can move mountains . . ." (p. 8) Nimrod's sons lead their people close to the promised land, but do not find it; however, Attila, does. Although on a valiant quest, Atilla battles all the great armies of Europe. Atilla is a war mongering, violent man who kills people who get in his way.

The Matchlock Gun 1942 W.D. Edmonds Positive

The Van Alstyne's are a Dutch family who immigrated to New York. The author states that, "It was not unusual to find Spanish guns in Holland, for the Spaniards had once invaded that country and believed they had conquered it. That is something no one should believe, for the Dutch are never good at staying beaten." (p. X)

King of the Wind: The Story
of the *Godolphin Arabian* 1949 M. Henry Moroccans Balanced
French Balanced

Agba, a mute Moroccan houseboy, follows an Arabian pony through several owners until the talent of the horse is known when he wins a race. After the race, Agba doesn't mind that he is mute because "words would have spoiled everything." (p. 169) Agba, is faithful, loyal, unselfish and fearless. Signor Achmet, also a Moroccan, is gruff and mean. Two minor characters are French. One is vain, always trying to impress the king. The other is wise, humble and kind.

The Wheel on the School 1955 M. DeJong Positive

Six Dutch children wonder why storks no longer nest in their village. Their determination brings the storks back to the village, and in the process brings together the village people, including the elderly and a handicapped man who had been labeled as mean.

Number the Stars 1990 L. Lowry Neutral

This sensitive portrait of the plight of the Jewish people during the holocaust recounts the friendship of Annemarie and Ellen. The Nazi's are occupying Denmark and the Jews of Denmark are being sent to "relocation" camps. Ellen and her family must escape or face "relocation". With Annemarie's help, the Rosens escape to freedom. The author realistically portrays how the Danish people helped the Danish Jews escape to Sweden.

Minor Characters

Roller Skates 1937 R. Sawyer Neutral

Lucinda's parents leave her at home when they travel to Italy. While her parents are gone, she befriends a young Italian boy named Tony whom she believes can teach her about Italy.

Mention of Ethnic Characters

Several other Newbery award-winning books mentioned ethnic characters; however, they played neither major nor minor roles in the stories. These books (with the ethnic group mentioned in parenthesis) include: *Invincible Louisa* (Blacks), *Thimble Summer* (Indians), *Daniel Boone* (Indians), *Johnny Tremain* (Indians), *The Twenty-One Balloons* (Indians, Blacks and Chinese), *The Door in the Wall* (Scottish), *Ginger Pye* (Indians), and *Lincoln: A Photobiography* (Blacks in the context of slavery).

Books Unable to be Classified

There were two books that were not classified. The first is *I, Juan de Pareja*, the 1966 winner, by E.B. de Trevino. This historical novel is an autobiography of Juan, the son of a black African woman and a white Spaniard. Juan is delivered to his new master, Velazquez. Juan says, "Spaniards are said to be excitable, impetuous people, but that is a lie. Master was a coolly dispassionate as a portrait of himself with a face that did not change expression." (p. 58) Juan is pleased that his master "did not dress me up like a pet monkey in bright silks and turbans . . ." (p. 40) Velazquez and Juan began in youth as master and slave, continued as companions in maturity and ended as equals and as friends. Because of Juan's parentage, the book could be placed in either the Black category or Hispanic category.

The other book that could not be categorized is *Onion John*, the 1960 winner, by J. Krumgold. This is a story of the friendship between a twelve-year-old and an immigrant odd-job man. The boy is struggling with his goals in conflict with his father's dreams for what the father is not and what he wanted to be. Onion John's country is never identified.

While it is clear that some of the Newbery award-winning books do not portray various ethnic groups in a positive light, this does not mean that they can not be used. If the books to be used portray the characters negatively, then the book should be put into its historical context. Additional books could be used which portray the same ethnic group in a more positive light.

Children should be presented with a variety of perspectives--both positive and negative--in an effort to teach critical reading and thinking. Sutherland and Arbuthnot (1977) suggest that children see their own images in books and if these are distorted or if there is stigma by omission, such self-images are damaged; books about children of differing ethnic groups should show the diversity within the group rather than a stereotype. In order to accomplish the goals set by Sutherland and Arbuthnot (1977) children should be exposed to a variety of books about different ethnic groups to encourage an understanding of people of different cultures, to assist them in their ability to deal with people of different cultures, and to promote lifelong reading through meaningful reading experiences.

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Newbery Award Winning Books

1922	*The Story of Mankind* by Hendrik Willem van Loon, Liveright.
*1923	*The Voyages of Dr. Dolittle* by Hugh Lofting, Lippincott.
1924	*The Dark Frigate* by Charles Hawes, Atlantic/Little.
*1925	*Tales from Silver Lands* by Charles Finger, Doubleday.
*1926	*Shen of the Sea* by Arthur Bowie Chrisman, Dutton.
*1927	*Smoky, The Cowhorse* by Will James, Scribner's.
*1928	*Gay-Neck; The Story of a Pigeon* by Dhan Gopal Mukerji, Dutton.
*1929	*The Trumpeter of Krakow* by Eric P. Kelly, Macmillan.
*1930	*Hitty; Her First Hundred Years* by Rachel Field, Macmillan.
*1931	*The Cat Who Went to Heaven* by Elizabeth Coatsworth, Macmillan.
*1932	*Waterless Mountain* by Laura Adams Armer, Longmans.
*1933	*Young Fu* by Elizabeth Foreman, Lewis, Winston.
*1934	*Invincible Louisa* by Cornelia Meigs, Little.
*1935	*Dobry* by Monica Shannon, Viking.
*1936	*Caddie Woodlawn* by Carol Ryrie Brink, Macmillan.
*1937	*Roller Skates* by Ruth Sawyer, Viking.
*1938	*The White Stag* by Kate Seredy, Viking.
*1939	*Thimble Summer* by Elizabeth Enright, Rinehart.
*1940	*Daniel Boone* by James Daugherty, Viking.
*1941	*Call It Courage* by Armstrong Sperry, Macmillan.
*1942	*The Matchlock Gun* by Walter D. Edmonds, Dodd.
*1943	*Adam of the Road* by Elizabeth Janet Gray, Viking.
*1944	*Johnny Tremain* by Esther Forbes, Houghton.
*1945	*Rabbit Hill* by Robert Lawson, Viking.
1946	*Strawberry Girl* by Lois Lenski, Lippincott.

1947 *Miss Hickory* by Carolyn Sherwin Bailey, Viking.

*1948 *The Twenty-One Balloons* by William Pene Du Bois, Viking.

*1949 *King of the Wind: The Story of the Godolphin Arabian* by Marguerite Henry, Rand.

*1950 *The Door in the Wall* by Marguerite de Angeli, Doubleday.

*1951 *Amos Fortune: Free Man* by Elizabeth Yates, Aladdin.

*1952 *Ginger Pye* by Eleanor Estes, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

*1953 *Secret of the Andes* by Ann Nolan Clark, Viking.

*1954 *...And Now Miguel* by Joseph Krumgold, Crowell.

*1955 *The Wheel on the School* by Meindert DeJong, Harper.

1956 *Carry on, Mr. Bowditch* by Jean Lee Latham, Houghton.

1957 *Miracles on Maple Hill* by Virginia Sorenson, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

*1958 *Rifles for Watie* by Harold Keith, Crowell.

1959 *The Witch of Blackbird Pond* by Elizabeth George Speare, Houghton.

*1960 *Onion John* by Joseph Krumgold, Crowell.

*1961 *Island of the Blue Dolphins* by Scott O'Dell, Houghton.

1962 *The Bronze Bow* by Elizabeth George Speare, Houghton.

1963 *A Wrinkle in Time* by Madeleine L'Engle, Farrar.

1964 *It's Like This, Cat* by Emily Cheney Neville, Harper.

*1965 *Shadow of a Bull* by Maia Wojciechowska, Atheneum.

*1966 *I, Juan de Pareja* by Borten de Trevino, Farrar.

1967 *Up a Road Slowly* by Irene Hunt, Follet.

1968 *From the Mixed-up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler* by E. L. Konigsburg, Atheneum.

1969 *The High King* by Lloyd Alexander, Holt.

*1970 *Sounder* by William H. Armstrong, Harper.

1971 *Summer of the Swans* by Betsy Byars, Viking.

1972 *Mrs. Frisby and the Rats of NIMH* by Robert C. O'Brien, Atheneum.

*1973 *Julie of the Wolves* by Jean Craighead George, Harper.

*1974 *The Slave Dancer* by Paul Fox, Bradbury.
*1975 M. C. *Higgins, the Great* by Virginia Hamilton, Macmillan.
1976 *The Grey King* by Susan Cooper, Atheneum.
*1977 *Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry* by Mildred D. Taylor, Dial.
1978 *Bridge to Terabithia* by Katherine Paterson, Crowell.
*1979 *The Westing Game* by Ellen Raskin, Dutton.
*1980 *A Gathering of Days: A New England Girls Journal 1830-32* by Joan Blos, Scribners.
1981 *Jacob Have I Loved* by Katherine Paterson, Crowell.
1982 *A Visit to William Blake's Inn: Poems for Innocent and Experienced Travelers* by Nancy Willard, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
*1983 *Dicey's Song* by Cynthia Voigt, Atheneum.
1984 *Dear Mr. Henshaw* by Beverly Clearly, Morrow.
1985 *The Hero and the Crown* by Robin McKinley, Greenwillow.
1986 *Sarah, Plain and Tall* by Patricia MacLachlan, Harper.
1987 *The Whipping Boy* by Sid Fleischman, Greenwillow.
*1988 *Lincoln: A Photobiography* by Russell Freedman, Clarion.
1989 *Joyful Noise: Poems for Two Voices* by Paul Fleischman, Harper.
*1990 *Number the Stars* by Lois Lowry, Houghton Mifflin.
*1991 *Maniac Magee* by Jerry Spinelli, Little-Brown.

*Indicates some reference to ethnicity.

Newbery Award Winning Books

With Reference to Ethnic Groups

1923 *The Voyages of Dr. Dolittle* by Hugh Lofting, Lippincott.
1925 *Tales from Silver Lands* by Charles Finger, Doubleday.
1926 *Shen of the Sea* by Arthur Bowie Chrisman, Dutton.
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Kindergartners' Use of Theme-Based Integrated Texts

Marina C. Alvarez, Judy Vaughn

How well children are able to reveal their understanding and workings of the world reflects their organization of world knowledge based on their prior knowledge and experience (Alvarez, 1990; Donaldson, 1978; Garnham, 1987; Holt, 1989). Being able to relate formal in-school to out-of-school experiences is an important consideration when engaging children in reading/writing and learning activities (Donham, 1949; Erickson, 1984; Eylon & Lynn, 1988). Nevertheless, there is evidence to suggest that young children are given more chances to explore, converse, share ideas, and ask questions at home than when they are in formal school setting (e.g., Goodman & Haussler, 1986; Hall, 1987; Juliebo, 1985; Tizard & Hughes, 1984).

In our roles as educators we may sometimes forget to include the experiences of our students when planning lessons. We may try to give students information without taking their world knowledge and experience into consideration. This notion of telling either by the teacher or the text is what Charles Graff (1940) warns us against in his essay "Because wisdom can't be told." His caution does not preclude learning in this way, for it is possible that students can be given information which, in turn, they can give back to us. However, this information is more often learned through rote memorization and is not spontaneously retrieved in settings other than the one in which it was introduced (Bransford, Franks, Vye, & Sherwood, 1989; Whitehead, 1929). Whitehead (1929) has termed this type of compartmentalized knowledge as being "inert."

The focus of this article is to examine ways in which kindergarten children can learn reading as concept development through the use of them-based integrated texts in an environment that is mutually adaptable rather than teacher dominated. First, a comparison is made between compartmentalized knowledge that tends to remain inert and incorporated knowledge that becomes assimilated into existing world knowledge. Next, examples are presented to reveal how kindergarten teachers can teach reading as concept development. Finally, suggestions are made for teaching reading as concept development. Finally, suggestions are made for teaching reading as concept development that can aid emergent and beginning readers to better comprehend the reading/writing process.

Compartmentalized versus Incorporated Knowledge

Learning contexts become meaningful when new information is linked to existing concepts and becomes incorporated (integrated and related to other knowledge sources in memory) rather than compartmentalized (isolated due to rote memorization). This notion is consistent with Ausubel's (1968) theory of learning, Gowin's (1981) theory of educating, and Gragg's (1940) warning that "wisdom can't be told." Incorporation of ideas is achieved by assembling different knowledge sources in memory (see Spiro, Vispoel, Schmitz, Samarapungavan, & Boerger, 1987). The role of knowledge activation and how one modifies or constructs schema with new information is an important consideration for knowledge assembly and incorporation to occur (Alvarez, in press; Alvarez, Binkley, Bivens, Highers, Poole, & Walker, 1991; Alvarez & Risko, 1989). Conversely, knowledge assembly and incorporation is prevented when students are directed to concentrate on those facts and themes in a compartmentalized fashion.

To illustrate, most instruction with basal readers and trade books emphasize analysis: Focusing on the structural elements of each book (e.g., theme, plot, setting, characters). Seldom are these books, and the questions asked of them, related to each other to foster concept development through synthesis. When synthesis (i.e., joining, selecting, discarding, implying, and entailing) does occur, it is usually done by the teacher for the children (Henry, 1974). If we expect imaginative thinkers, children need to create their own learning contexts. This process involves shared meaning between students and their teacher that allows for student decision-making.

Conventional Model versus Theme-Based Integrated Model

In a conventional classroom the curriculum is usually fixed with the teacher dominating the forces that compose the classroom. Stories are read, assignments made, and activities completed with little consideration of students' world experience. Often these experiences are shunned in favor of a literacy curriculum that consists of a structured schedule of books to be read, and a set of questions to be answered. In these instances, efforts are concentrated on analysis (separating) of a poem or story, but not on the aspects of synthesis. In contrast, a classroom that is constantly providing literacy contexts that focus on the logical processes (e.g., joining, selecting, discarding, implying, and entailing) of ideas gives students a learning context that they have helped to create and are aware of for themselves (Henry, 1974). This kind of classroom represents a theme-based environment in which reading demands thinking through the combining of analysis and synthesis to form conceptual development. In order for beginning readers to appreciate literature and subsequently develop into lifelong readers, teachers need to respect their students current level of intelligence by allowing them to relate their daily experiences to those encountered in the classroom.

Teaching Reading as Concept Development

Being able to reason promotes reading and writing for meaningful learning, which in turn encourages thinking (Lipman, 1988; Lipman, Sharp & Oscanyan, 1977). Philosophizing is an attempt to resolve uncertainty through reasoning. It fosters inquisitiveness and vivid imagination necessary for forming conceptual connections among events. Encouraging students to use their imagination when learning is a provocative tool for enhancing conceptual knowledge (Egan, 1986; Matthews, 1980, 1984). Mental models are influenced by reasoning and philosophizing. A person's mental model is a representation of a particular belief based on existing knowledge of a physical system or a semantic representation depicted in a text. Holt (1989) states that our mental models change when we explore the world around us and create knowledge out of our own questions, thoughts, and experiences. In essence, a mental model represents our structure of reality (Alvarez, 1990).

Mental models are constructivist in nature. The result of comprehension is a description of what the text describes (objects, events, processes) not a description of the text itself (Glenberg, Meyer, & Lindem, 1987). Mental models represent what the text is about, not the text itself. In this vein, both folk tales and fables, which fall under the rubric of folk narratives, encourage readers or listeners to infer a generality or interpret a symbol by using one's imagination and intellect–philosophy and reason. The focus of this inquiry was to organize and communicate meaning in ways that allowed students to reflect on their mental models of formal in-school and out-of-school experiences that could be related to the stories and extend to other settings.

We were interested in exploring a theme-based model with kindergarten students to determine if these children could synthesize theme-based integrated texts. Our question was, "Can kindergartners synthesize theme-based integrated texts?" The focus of our question involved not just separating the structural elements that comprise a story, but using this analysis to join with another work external to the ideas contained within one story. Our intent was to discern if these twenty-four kindergartners in the second author's class could incorporate new information.

In order to test the question of synthesis, two folk tales were selected: *The Three Little Pigs* (Banta & Dempster, 1953), and *The Three Bears* (Galdone, 1972). Since children's imagination is an important part of concept development (e.g., Egan, 1986; Lipman, 1988; Lipman et al., 1977; Matthews, 1980, 1984), we selected folk tales to stimulate this process. Although folk tales were not created specifically for children, they appeal to a child's sense of imagination, feelings, and intellect (Moffett & Wagner, 1983). Folk tales have been passed down through time in various versions; and, are characterized by having exotic plots that tell a story using many details and repetitive phrases. Each folk tale has the basic components of a short story: An introduction, a body, and a conclusion. The vocabulary is usually vivid, direct, and uncomplicated when describing portrayals of the events.

Plot Line

Folk tales, like other types of stories, begin by setting up binary conflict or a problem to be resolved in the end. This plot line carries the story forward by using binary opposition and themes to help the reader or listener make sense of new information (Egan, 1986). For example, the folk tale, *The Three Little Pigs*, centers around the themes of responsibility, deception, and intelligence. The characters are established in the title that answers the question Who? When is the initiating event (pigs leave home to make their way in the world. The brothers are harmonious as they depart from home. Their level of responsibility is ascertained by the type of house each builds. Two of the pigs show a low level of responsibility and are frivolous in building houses of straw and sticks. The third exhibits a high level of responsibility and intelligence by building a house of bricks to protect against the elements and intruders. The action sequence that follows corresponds to a significant aspect of the moral of the tale: A crime and a consequence that is incurred by the intruder the wolf.

The first part of the story centers on the degree of responsibility of each pig. The second part is one of suspense in that the first and second pig flee to the third's home built of bricks. The reader is aware of the approaching threat to the first, second, and then the third pig.

As the story continues, the reader forms an alliance with the three pigs (the frivolous nature of the first and second pig is set aside momentarily). The reader's attention is now focused on the fate of the pigs huddled in the house made of bricks. The suspenseful climax comes when the wolf gets his just deserts and flees never to return. The reader is left to speculate whether or not the first two pigs have learned from their experiences.

Students were read the story of *The Three Little Pigs* and then presented with a story map we devised that included the initiating event, problem, four attempts and their respective outcomes, and a final resolution (see Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1991). The students were asked the moral or lesson of the story, what they learned from the story, their opinions of the characters, and their feelings about the story. The same procedure was used with *The Three Bears* whose theme was curiosity. As with the *Three Little Pigs* a story map depicting *The Three Bears* was developed that included the initiating event, problem, and coincidently contained four attempts, outcomes, and a final resolution. The same questions were asked of this folk tale. Several commonalities were revealed in the two folk tales. In both there was intrusion (one by an animal the other by a human), violation of home, and family relatedness (brothers, mother, father, and baby). There were also binary opposition such as animal-human; good behavior-bad behavior; happy ending-sad ending.

These two story maps and binary opposition aided in demonstrating to these children reading as concept development. First, the analysis (separating) of each folk tale portrayed the events and the characters who were the protagonists (pigs and bears) and the antagonists (wolf and Goldilocks). Themes evolved from each folk tale. Responsibility, suspense, intrusion, and adventure were shared by both stories, while deception emerged in *The Three Little Pigs*, and curiosity in *The Three Bears*. Students were then asked to generate a folk tale of their own to determine the degree of synthesis. Egan (1986) suggests that stories engage children because the events and details keep the story flowing. Those facts and events that are not engaging to the reader or listener are omitted even though they are connected and interesting by themselves. For these students the engaging facts and ideas of the two folk tales served to generate the following story:

Goldilocks Two

> Once there was a little girl named Goldilocks. She went to a big wolf's cave. The wolf scared her out of the cave. Then the wolf started chasing her. She hid behind a big rock and scared the wolf away. Then she ran through the fields and tried to get home. She

> passed by the wolf's cave and the wolf was hiding in a secret place. The wolf jumped out and scared her. After that they started to be friends. They lived happily ever after.

In *Goldilocks Two*, a sequel to the *Three Bears*, the initiating event is precipitated by Goldilocks visiting a big wolf's cave. However, unlike her first adventure, she is frightened away by the wolf instead of the bears. The wolf pursues her; she hides, then scares the wolf away. She tries to get home, but in doing so she encounters the wolf again. This time the wolf is hiding in a secret place in a cave. The wolf scares her. The reader receives the impression that this give and take between the antagonists Goldilocks (*Three Bears*) and the wolf (*Three Little Pigs*) is a playful exchange rather than a violent one, and is resolved by their becoming friends and living happily ever after. When the students were asked how the wolf and Goldilocks became friends, they responded: "In this story, the wolf had not eaten in a few weeks. He wanted to eat anything he could find. He was so hungry, but the wolf felt sorry for her [Goldilocks] and didn't want to eat her because she couldn't find her way home and that's why they became friends." At the suggestion of the students, this story was illustrated by three members of the class selected by the students and put into book form.

These kindergarten children synthesized the two folk tales in an imaginative fashion by highlighting the antagonists (Goldilocks and the wolf) as companions. They selected essential elements of each folk tale through their analysis and synthesized them into a creative story: "Goldilocks Two." First, they joined the antagonists from each story. Then they selected the events and characters that they wanted in their story while discarding other events that took place in each respective folk tale. The implication of this story is that the wolf and Goldilocks eventually become friends, and Goldilocks finds her way home (evidenced by house drawn in the distance by the illustrator of "Goldilocks Two"). These students dealt with the notion of entailing by extending the themes of each folk tale to one of friendship. They stated that the wolf and Goldilocks were "mean". This was accomplished while including an aspect of "curiosity" and "deception" evident in the original versions.

In so doing, the children demonstrated that they were able to create their own learning contexts. Students took charge of the learning environment and made the lesson meaningful for them. They demonstrated that they were able to self-direct and take control of their own learning by suggesting that they write a book that was illustrated and that the illustrators be selected by them rather than taking the teacher's idea of making a story chart. When the teacher first wrote the title as "Goldilocks II" they suggested that the word "Two" by substituted for the Roman Numeral. In this case, meaning was negotiated by students and the teacher resulting in a purposeful exchange of ideas in a shared, supportive, and nonthreatening environment.

Story Enhancement

After a subsequent reading and analysis of *The Gingerbread Man* (Schmidt, 1985), the students spontaneously asked to write an accompanying story. The students developed a story they entitled "The Candy Cane Man."

The Candy Cane Man

"An old man and an old lady bought one medium candy cane. They put him in a little jar. He was tall and the jar was short. The man and lady put the jar on the counter. Then the candy cane jumped out of the jar and ran away from the old man and the old lady. He ran on a trail until he came to an elf. The elf said, "Stop I want to eat you." The candy cane man said, "You can't eat me, I'm the candy cane man." He ran to a Christmas Shop. And inside was a gingerbread house. And he ran in the gingerbread house. But it was really Santa's Workshop. So Santa put him in his sleigh and took him to Audra's house and put him in her stocking. Then Audra ate him on Christmas morning!"

The End

The events of their story parallel those of *The Gingerbread Man*, however, they personalized the story by including a member of their class into the story. They revealed their understanding of the story and critical analysis of the *Gingerbread Man*, by refining the events, incorporating the time of the season, and synthesizing this new information into an imaginative theme-related story. Within this enhancement process the children were able to apply what they were learning to a related but different setting. This new knowledge became meaningful to them when they related the key events to their personal experience and world knowledge. In other words, learning took place under their deliberate control with guidance by the teacher. Synthesis was achieved by the students themselves not for them by the teacher.

Discussion

Students can be taught to read for concept development where synthesis is achieved by discovering relations among facts and ideas, and then creating a structure that incorporates these facts and ideas into extended relations. During this process both the cognitive and affective domains work together to develop and create new learning contexts. Critical thinking and philosophizing lead to schema construction, which is accomplished through strategies that learners can use for achieving understanding with new information. This new knowledge is tested by the learner by contrasting new ideas and through reflective thinking that raises issues that either offer alternative interpretations, multiple possibilities, or confirm an existing belief.

These students actively participated in the reading of the folk tales by sharing their thoughts and feelings with the teacher and among themselves. With teacher guidance, they were able to recognize the key ideas and facts that surrounded the major events of each folk tale and used their imagination to create comparable folk tales of their own. Their writing of *Goldilocks Two* demonstrates how the combination of analysis and synthesis with two theme-based integrated texts lead to concept development. How this process raises the level of consciousness within learners is shown in their portrayal of *The Candy Cane Man*, which enhanced the story of *The Gingerbread Man*. This parallel story brings reading for concept development into focus by revealing how beginning readers can take essential frames of one story and reposition them into personal meaning by using their present world knowledge and experience.

A prevalent problem that inhibits beginning readers is their inability to think about what they are reading. This occurs, in part, because teachers present ready-made synthesis in the teaching of reading. The teacher synthesizes for the student and denies the student the opportunity to examine what evolves beyond analysis, which the student must do to read creatively (Henry, 1974). When the learner relates the main points of a text to other main points in another text in order to find a place for them in an expanding mental model, it becomes a strategy in synthesis. Once students are versed in reading as concept development, they will be challenged by literary works that will sustain them as lifelong readers.

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Evaluation of Statewide Workplace Literacy Computer-Assisted Instruction for Commercial Drivers

Emory Brown, Eunice Askov

R.O.A.D. To Success

Commercial drivers in the United States are required to pass a federal Commercial Driver's Licensing (CDL) knowledge test by April 1, 1992. The Commercial Driver's manual, on which the test is based, is written at a 6th- to- 8th grade reading level. This report is an evaluation of the statewide delivery of a field tested educational program to improve reading skills of commercial drivers using the content of the CDL study manual (Sticht, 1987).

R.O.A.D. to Success 1

R.O.A.D. (Real Opportunities for Advancement and Development) to success is a basic skills course of interactive computer courseware and print-based materials which was developed and field tested with drivers in the Pennsylvania Department of Transportation during 1989-90, with funding from the National Workplace Literacy Grants program of the U.S. Department of Education (Brown, 1990). The program was developed through a partnership of Pennsylvania Department of Education; American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees; and The Pennsylvania State University's Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy. The Pennsylvania Department of Transportation was the recipient of services. Courseware and print materials were developed at the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy and tested with 68 drivers diagnosed as having deficiency in literacy skills needed to pass the CDL exam. The computer courseware and print materials developed in that project covered general knowledge, air brakes, and combination vehicles from the Commercial Driver's License manual.

Tests were administered to the drivers before and after the program to measure increases in reading skills and knowledge about the content of the manual. Drivers increased their scores on all tests significantly and improved in job performance. Fifty-nine percent of the R.O.A.D. driver students passed the Commercial Driver's License (CDL) exam at the end of the program. Since the end of the program, all of the other drivers in the R.O.A.D. program have passed the CDL except five who have either retired or are no longer employed by PennDOT. A follow-up survey one year later of the 68 drivers who participated in the program (only nine respondents) found two-thirds reading more, usually newspapers and work related materials. Three out of the nine are working toward the GED. The best part of the program was the computers and the teachers according to the drivers. All reported they were glad they took the training.

R.O.A.D. to Success 2

The R.O.A.D. partnership was awarded a second National Workplace Literacy Grant to further develop and disseminate the R.O.A.D. to Success program for an 18 month period from April 1, 1990 to September 30, 1991, subsequently extended to November 30, 1991. The general objectives of the second R.O.A.D. to Success project were: (a) to offer the R.O.A.D. curriculum on a statewide basis to PennDOT and other state agencies and municipalities; (b) to develop and revise/update existing materials and complete the curriculum in order to teach basic skills required for workers to comprehend the manual and pass the licensing exam; and (c) to offer technical assistance to other states and organizations.

More specific objectives were: (a) to develop an innovative statewide delivery system; (b) to complete development of the curriculum materials to correspond with portions of the CDL manual and to revise/update the existing materials; (c) to prepare a student workbook and tutor's manual for lower-level readers; (d) to offer limited technical assistance to other states, municipalities, and private companies in meeting the mandate of the CDL licensing exam by offer awareness workshops; and (e) to disseminate the findings and information on obtaining the R.O.A.D. curriculum materials.

R.O.A.D. to Success 2 Objectives

A national workshop was held in September 1990 to increase understanding of the CDL manual and legislation and to become familiar with R.O.A.D. to Success curriculum materials in providing instruction. Sixty-seven attended the two day workshop from Pennsylvania and other states. Pre and post conference surveys were conducted. Participants were satisfied with the information they received and most had plans to teach for the CDL exam back home. A follow-up questionnaire was sent to the participants one year later. Forty percent responded. Seventeen of the 27 respondents had taught for the CDL exam, usually to commercial drivers. They reported teaching 1448 drivers, and that 97 percent passed the CDL. Only three used computers. Teaching materials included PennDOT videotapes, CDL study manual, and R.O.A.D. print materials. The respondents were very positive about the help they received from the workshop.

Three similar workshops were held in 1990 for Pennsylvania municipalities to help them use the R.O.A.D. program for teaching drivers to pass the exam. Satisfaction was rated high by the 45 participants.

Completion and Revision of the R.O.A.D. Curriculum Materials

The computer courseware and print materials were completed by the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy to correspond with the content of the CDL manual. The first project had completed the general knowledge, air brakes, and combination vehicles. The second project completed the remaining sections. All R.O.A.D. curriculum materials were revised and updated based on results from the pilot testing and from the feedback given by teachers and students in the second project.

Workbook/Tutor's Guide. A R.O.A.D. to Success workbook was developed for learners reading below the fourth grade level. A tutor's guide was written to assist tutors or other teachers in using the workbook. Reactions of students, tutors, and teachers were obtained to evaluate these workbooks. Feedback was limited because there were few readers below the fourth grade in the R.O.A.D. 2 program.

Passing the CDL test was the top priority for the students, not learning to read. Some low-level readers chose to take the oral exam and did not want to commit themselves to the time required for using the workbook. Teachers who used the workbook, however, reported that the instructional activities, teaching CDL reading vocabulary and comprehension skills, were help to beginning readers.

Statewide Delivery of R.O.A. D. to Success Program

The delivery system planned originally was revised when almost all of the PennDOT drivers in the state successfully passed the CDL due to intensive compulsory training by PennDOT and changes in policies which permitted repeated testing and oral exams. The original plan was to have multiple PennDOT sites with classes held in the morning and afternoon to provide 100 hours instruction with open entry/exit for the drivers. Each site would have 10 computers and the primary target population would be on the clock. Classes would move from site to site within the six regions. When the targeted PennDOT drivers were not available as students, teachers were suddenly faced with additional tasks of recruiting drivers and obtaining teaching sites. Classes were offered at 52 sites when drivers were available, during the day or evening. The priority order for serving drivers included state and local municipalities, school districts, and private companies. The R.O.A.D. teaching materials were intended for readers below the 8th grade, but teachers used them along with other teaching materials for all drivers. Some teachers used the R.O.A.D. materials with the computers while others used videos and the CDL manual with the computer courseware and print materials as supplements. All used various sample quizzes. Most drivers wanted to review a large part of the manual while a few needed instruction on only specific endorsements.

Data were obtained on the characteristics of the drivers both when they entered and left the program. Drivers also completed a Basic Skills Check test--developed during R.O.A.D. 1 which measures target basic skills using CDL material--and an attitude survey at the beginning and end of instruction. The drivers who scored low on the Basic Skills test were asked to take the TABE Survey pre and post. Teachers kept diaries. Personal interviews were held with the partners, the teachers, the Institute staff, and a few student drivers and supervisors of the student drivers. Almost all drivers took the CDL exam within one or two weeks of completing the instruction. It was not possible to obtain the testing results from the testing agency; hence, each teacher asked students to report back the results by postcard or in person. At least one teacher obtained the results at the testing site.

About 2,400 drivers were given instruction ranging from 2 hours to 126 hours, with the average being about 20. About one out of six were female, mostly school bus drivers. One-half the drivers were employed in public agencies and the other one-half were privately employed. About 95 percent were white.

Difficulties were encountered in having drivers complete tests before and after instruction primarily because of the open entry, open exit format and the limited number of class hours of many students. About one out of seven drivers completed both the pretest and posttest of the Basic Skills Check. The average scores increased from 42.6 to 46.6 with 50 being the maximum possible. All scores increased significantly ($t=5.7$, . < 0.000) for the total as well as within each of the six regions.

Table 1

Mean Differences in Basic Skills Check Scores by Pennsylvania Regions and State for 282 Commercial Drivers

Region	N	Pre	Post
1	19	41.8	46.5
2	58	43.0	46.8
3	57	42.5	46.2
4	21	43.7	47.6
5	**	-	-
6	127	41.9	45.7
Total	282	42.6	46.6

*All differences were significant at the 0.001 to 0.000 levels by the t test
**No Post Basic Skills Check Scores Available

About one out of nine entering students scored below 35, the group which needed considerable basic skills instruction (See Table 2). About five out of ten had scores above 44. Basic Skill Check scores increased significantly (X^2 (2, D=282) = 35.6, p. < .001) for those needing little training as well as those requiring much help. By regression analysis, it was not possible to predict changes in Basic Skill Check scores with TABE Survey scores, years of employment, type of employment, schooling completed, and hours of instruction ($F = 1.7$, p. < .015). Only 59 cases were available to do this analysis. Using only hours of instruction as the predictor variable, for 247 cases, the results are still not significant. ($F = 2.5$, p. < 0.12). The TABE Survey test scores did not change significantly; ($t = 0.62$, p. < 0.54); however, only 42 cases were available pre and post.

Table 2

Mean Differences in Basic Skills Check Scores for Three Basic Skill Levels of 282 Commercial Drivers

Pennsylvania Basic Skills Check Levels	Pre		Post	
	N	%	N	%
<35	41	14	9	3
35-44	87	31	59	21
45-50	154	55	214	76
Totals	282	100	282	100

Attitudes about taking and passing the CDL exam and about participating in the classes increased significantly ($t = 10.9$, $p. < 0.000$). Drivers felt more able to pass the exam and improved their attitudes about participating in adult education. Attitudes were measured by a nine item test. These attitudinal changes were significant for all literacy levels. Drivers reported they were motivated to pass the CDL to keep their job and to be a better worker. The benefits they received were: (a) remembering what they learned, (b) being in the class, (c) using the computer, and to a lesser extent, (d) improvement in reading. No significant changes occurred for self-esteem and perception of job mobility.

Teachers and partners were satisfied with the overall accomplishments. The perceived major benefits were helping a large number of drivers pass the exam and completing the R.O.A.D. curriculum materials. Teachers were concerned about the small number of low-level readers they reached. Teachers reported almost all their students passed the CDL exam; they were aware of only a few who had not passed, usually very low-level readers,

Dissemination

Dissemination efforts included presentations and exhibits at professional conferences and teleconferences as well as numerous references in articles submitted for publication, newspaper articles, and adult education newsletters. R.O.A.D. materials were used by PennDOT in their intensive training program. Nineteen local service providers in Pennsylvania are now using R.O.A.D. materials in a state-funded CDL training project. All materials have been copyrighted in the name of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and are being sold at cost. A brochure listing curriculum materials has been widely distributed by the Institute. There have been 82 computer software orders and 108 print-based materials distributed.

Implications

Teachers need staff development not only in teaching content and methods, but also in student outreach and computers, if they are being used.

- Open entry and open exit requires extra effort in measuring student changes. Customized criterion referenced tests are preferred to generic tests.
- Use of computers requires attention to security.
- Union participation is essential to recruitment and morale among workers. Management was essential in releasing workers on the clock.
- Special efforts are needed to motivate the low-level readers to participate.
- Teachers need to adapt to literacy level of adult students and use of teaching materials and resources.

Conclusions

- A basic skills curriculum of interactive computer software and print-based materials to teach basic skills required for transportation workers to comprehend and pass the Commercial Driver's License (CDL) was developed and revised using the content of the CDL manual.
- When delivered to about 2,400 drivers with varying literacy levels, the job-specific instructional materials, including computer courseware and print study materials, effectively increased the job-related basic skills of commercial drivers and increased their ability to comprehend the manual and pass the required exam.
- The curriculum materials, including print study materials, computer-assisted instruction modules, the instructor's manual, and the workbook and tutor's guide, are being disseminated to potential users.

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An Innovative Program for Meeting the Literacy Needs of a Non-Majority-Culture Community

Mary Beneditti, Terry Bullock, Chet Laine, Michaeline Wideman, Harriette Frank, Kenneth Sharp, Morris Garrett

This paper will examine literacy education in an urban Appalachian community. The authors, who include the director of a literacy center, an elementary school principal, several adult educators, a teacher educator, and members of the community, examine the ways in which literacy needs are being met from their distinct perspectives. Although each author has used a unique--and sometimes unconventional--approach to helping the urban Appalachian client groups develop literacy skills, all agree that the coming together of various agencies, institutions, and groups promotes an intergenerational approach to literacy which may prove a valuable model that can work in other cultural settings. What is unique about the concepts presented here is that all of these individuals and programs work together to form a coordinated system which benefits virtually every member of the target group. The union of these various agencies, institutions, and groups allows a spectrum of opportunities for life-long learning in the urban Appalachian community and facilitates appropriate referrals for individuals in need. In addition, each program emphasizes recognizing and respecting the traditional values of Appalachian culture and using those values in a positive way.

Background: The Perspective of an Appalachian Turned Oral Historian

Morris Garrett grew up in Owsley County, Kentucky, the poorest county in the United States. He has maintained close ties with his childhood community by making frequent trips to this area to collect oral histories and to videotape the people and places of the area. His intimate knowledge of the area provides the context for understanding the transition of the Appalachian from a rural to an urban setting.

In the mid 1900s, the coal mines of Kentucky and West Virginia were becoming automated and coal production was declining. Soon the labor market was saturated and many of the mountaineer families were faced with hardship and poverty. The families could no longer support their many children, so thousands of young people migrated to the industrial north in search of a better life. Because Cincinnati was an industrial center and was close to the area, it soon gained a substantial population of Appalachian immigrants.

These rural Appalachians transplanted to urban Cincinnati found themselves in a totally unfamiliar environment. There were no fields, mountains, or fresh air; also absent were the close blood relationships and family ties so important to mountain people.

There was tremendous trauma to our lonely young women and men, who spent hard lives at monotonous, low-wage jobs, living in crowded slum areas with few friends and little recreation. There was neither time nor money to visit their families back home, so most made do in a minimal fashion, marrying other migrants who had followed the route north and raising families as best they could in this alien and unfriendly environment.

Today, the urban Appalachian environment of Cincinnati is large, with close to 25% of the population in Greater Cincinnati having some Appalachian heritage. The circumstances of life for these people, however, has not improved. Appalachian children have the highest dropout rate in the city. Of the ten Cincinnati neighborhoods with the highest dropout rates, eight are heavily Appalachian and the other two are mixed African-American and Appalachian. Close to a third of the Appalachian population in Cincinnati are low income working class people. Unlike many other groups, these people are experiencing downward rather than upward mobility. Second generation urban Appalachians are worse off socio-economically than the first generation migrants. Even more alarming, the family stability, so characteristic of their culture, has disintegrated under the stress of urban living. In 1970, in one of our urban

Appalachian communities, 70% of the children lived in two-parent families. A decade later, in 1980, only 30% did so.

Making Reading a Reality for the Urban Appalachian: The Perspective of a Literacy Center Director

Harriette Frank has directed the Nativity Literacy Center in the predominantly urban Appalachian Cincinnati neighborhood of Price Hill for three years. The Center, which emphasizes an intergenerational approach to literacy, serves 100 or more students of all ages every year.

Reading is not considered a critical skill in the mountains. Reading in a typical mountain community involves only the Bible and the hymn book. Other books and magazines in the home are practically nonexistent. School books are scarce, out-dated, and passed down from one child to another. Local news is usually shared through the party line or a "holler from one holler to another."

In order to validate books and the importance of education in the urban Appalachian communities, an intergenerational approach is critical. Both parents and children must realize the necessity of literacy skills in an urban environment. Thus, parental involvement in the educational process is of paramount importance. The personal attention involved in becoming acquainted with the urban Appalachian family demands the time of the literacy educator, but when the learning process and the books are shared with both parents, who very often are vicarious recipients of the learning, that marvelous bond of kinship so dear to the Appalachian remains intact and report cards become emblems of great pride.

The first concern of the literacy educator, then, is integrating the Urban Appalachian adult into the education system. Braving a city school system with its educational structure and policies can be terrifying to the arriving Appalachian. The independent dignity that marks the Appalachian personality does not make asking for help easy, so these individuals are often seen as uncaring.

A second concern is working with the entire family, from small children to grandparents. The Nativity Literacy Center's intergenerational approach serves the needs of the entire family. A major part of working with the entire family, however, entails respecting their values, traditions, and language. Our solution is to integrate the many strengths possessed by the Appalachian with the tools our schools can teach and by so doing create a society we can all take pride in. An actual case of how this can happen is described below; only the names have been altered.

Mary Sims, a fifty-year-old grandmother from Western Kentucky, came to the Center three years ago to seek assistance for her grandson Jason, a fourth grader who was experiencing difficulty in school. Mary hoped that the Center's after-school and summer programs could help Jason be more successful in school.

Mary herself had absolutely no reading skills. But when she found out that the Center could help her as well as her grandson, she jumped at the chance to learn to read. Mary stayed with us a year. At the end of that time she, along with her dedicated volunteer tutor Bill, was honored at a Cincinnati Literacy Task Force dinner for the progress she had made. Although Mary and her grandson later moved to Kentucky, her success prompted her daughter Lee, a highly motivated mother of three, to begin attending the Center to earn her GED certification. She studied diligently and earned her GED after only six months. Another sister, also a mother of three, has enrolled her children in the Center's programs but is still reluctant to attend herself.

This family is a prime example of the crying need to embrace the total family when we strive to combat illiteracy.

The Perspective of an Elementary School Principal: Developing the Foundation of Lifelong Learning in an Urban Appalachian Community

Kenneth J. Sharp is the principal at Whittier Elementary School in Price Hill. He not only traces his roots to Appalachia, but has spent the majority of his professional life teaching and principaling in urban Appalachian schools. He knows firsthand the problems of these children who are caught between two cultures--a rural culture from which their parents and grandparents have just emerged and an urban culture where they live, play, and go to school.

Whittier Elementary School, a school located in a community containing a high percentage of first and second generation Appalachians, has for the past twenty years served a student population of approximately 92% white Urban Appalachian children. The special needs of these students have led to the formulation of life-long learning goals including the improvement of student self-image, self-discipline, and attendance; student academic achievement; and parental involvement in the school. These goals were articulated with the cooperation and collaboration of what we call "stakeholders," which include parents, faculty, students, and community members. Stakeholders are empowered to assume leadership roles which are necessary for program implementation; they share in decision making, value "power with others" rather than "power over others," and believe in the vision that "We will succeed!"

A number of program changes have come about through this emphasis on the needs of our student population. For example, Whittier offers an all-day every-day kindergarten program for all pupils. In grades one and two, class size for reading and communication arts has been reduced to one-half (approximately 14) to give greater personal attention to these students.

In addition to these programmatic improvements, efforts are also being made to increase family involvement, create a stronger community, and reach students on a more personal level. Parent Liaisons assist the school counselor and visiting teacher in making home visits and involving parents in school. The purposes of their efforts are to promote good student attendance, clarify school procedures, assist parents in understanding instructional programs, help parents in securing community agency services, and assist parents in becoming active participants in their child's schooling. The school counselor and visiting teacher, through individual and group counseling efforts, assist in enhancing the self-image of students. The counselor provides whole class instruction on positive life attitudes.

This recognition of the needs of our students and their families has led to great improvements in the education of the urban Appalachian children in our community.

The Perspective of an Adult Educator

> Michaeline Wideman taught in a vocational education program before coming to the University of Cincinnati as a faculty member in the Reading and Study Program. She has successfully tutored and taught numerous Appalachian adults who were seeking a GED as well as first generation Appalachian college students who are breaking new found in the field of higher education.

The common thread of Appalachia is the concept of independent dignity. These proud, determined people are driven by believing in themselves.

The most memorable Appalachian I have ever known is a man named Estel Sizemore, who asked that his name be used in this article. Estel, whose formal education ended in the second grade, is from Hyden, Kentucky. When a back injury forced Estel out of work, he decided he needed an education.

Estel entered an adult basic education program at a Cincinnati vocational school. He soon encountered difficulties, however, because his lack of formal education and his newly-discovered dyslexia severely hampered his reading ability. Instead of discouraging him, his disabilities made Estel even more motivated. He became driven to talk to others about the importance of reading and writing. On his own, Estel began speaking to elementary school students of the value of education. Estel Sizemore became a self-declared "reading ambassador." He did commercials for the local television station on the importance of reading. He was also the first Project Literacy United States (PLUS) student of the month for a national promotion on the importance of reading. He became so well-known for his efforts that he received a national award from First Lady Barbara Bush, appeared on ABC's "Good Morning America," served as a state representative at a national literacy meeting, and was invited as a motivational speaker at IBM. This man from a less-than-ideal educational and economic background had become a success.

Estel Sizemore's heritage of independent dignity exemplifies Appalachians as educators should know them. People like Estel are not unique in the urban Appalachian community–but they are special.

Preservice/Inservice Programs for Teachers Working in Urban Appalachian Communities: The Role of the University

> Chet Laine is a teacher educator at the University of Cincinnati. Having recently discovered his own Appalachian heritage, he has become involved with helping preservice and inservice teachers to become culturally sensitive when teaching urban Appalachian children.

The Literacy Program at the University of Cincinnati works with graduate and undergraduate students, both students preparing to be teachers of English and experienced teachers returning for graduate work in literacy. Our goals in these efforts are to help teachers develop an awareness of Appalachian culture and history with all of their students and assist teachers in meeting the needs of urban Appalachian students. We seek to develop: (a) a recognition that all students are worthy of a teacher's sympathetic attention in the classroom, (b) a desire to use the teaching of English language arts to help students become familiar with diverse peoples and culture, and (c) a respect for the individual language and dialect of each student.

In the many staff development courses that we offer, the teachers take part in presentations, activities, and discussions related to Appalachian music, art, literature, history, and culture. We wrestle with notions of family, stereotypes, cultural identity, communication, and advocacy. This type of teacher training is critical for those who will work with culturally diverse students. When English teachers make mistakes estimating a student's or a cultural group's intellectual potential, the consequences of such errors can be enormous: mislabeling, misplacement, and inappropriate teaching. Therefore, professionals working with culturally diverse students must view those students as the best resources of information on their own needs. Students should be allowed and encouraged to initiate conversations about teaching strategies, advising needs, and cultural differences. Furthermore, teachers and program administrators must be careful to fit the curriculum to the students rather than vice versa.

Those who understand that language is power–in this case teachers--need to be trained to be explicit about the rules and codes--interactional styles, language registers, cultural taboos, attitudes toward authority--that are important for acquiring power. Being explicit helps students such as those in the urban Appalachian community learn these codes and rules more successfully.

Training teachers who have attitudes that celebrate diversity is my challenge. I must help teachers develop the sensitivity necessary to work successfully with students from varied cultures. If the sensitivity is sincere, these teachers will look for the unique gifts that each student brings to the classroom.

Making the Connections: The Perspective of a Teacher of Special-needs Students

Mary Sovik Benedetti teaches developmental writing courses for special-needs students (non-native speakers of English, students with learning disabilities, lower-income returning adult students) in an open admissions college of the University of Cincinnati. She has had extensive experience working with non-majority-culture students in various parts of the U.S. and with non-native speakers of English in Latin America.

The concept of cooperative and voluntary union among a wide spectrum of programs and services can serve as a valuable model for those who work in other cultural settings. No one organization can provide all services to all individuals of a community, but many smaller or more narrowly focused organizations can work together to provide a comprehensive system of support for newly arrived refugees, women returning to the work force, individuals with handicaps, lower-income families, or any group whose needs are not being adequately met.

I find that the benefits of working within a model such as this are enormous. When one of my urban Appalachian students at the University has a problem which our program is not equipped to handle, I know that I can refer that student to an organization which is able to help. I have a network of individuals to whom I can turn if I need advice about working with members of the community. We learn with and from each other, and we work together to help a cultural group which has been underserved for far too long.

American Reading Forum

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American Reading Forum

Membership Information

The American Reading Forum:

The American Reading Forum is a nonprofit, professional organization composed of individuals who share an interest in the improvement of reading. While the American Reading Forum is an organization that facilitates the dissemination of ideas and research, it places highest priority on providing its members opportunities for a critical discussion of ideas, issues, research, and paradigms.

The American Reading Forum's Goals:

The American Reading forum declares the following to be its reason for existence and the guidelines for its activities:

- To provide a true forum for reading education where new research can be generated, research in progress can be refined, completed research can be reported, and reported research can be evaluated.
- To provide for the translation of reading research, theory, and philosophical deliberations into sound practice, but with no research, discussion, or contemplation to be discarded because its implementation is not immediately apparent.
- To conduct a conference at which newly trained scholars and scholars in training can get to know and get assistance from established and distinguished scholars in the field, through a mutual exchange of ideas.
- To provide a yearbook through which scholars of all levels can share viewpoints, resources, and expertise.
- To ensure that in the field of reading no idea is too bold or new to be given a hearing, and none too old to be given reconsideration.

The American Reading Forum's Meeting:

To achieve its goals, ARF sponsors a meeting each year during early December. The program consists of the common conference session formats (e.g.,, paper sessions, major addresses, and symposia), as well as alternative formats to those generally employed by organizations in the field of reading. To enhance the opportunity for participant's interaction, the American Reading Forum encourages a variety of formats for its sessions. A "Topical Issues Forum," a "Continuous Dialogue Session," and "Mentorships Sessions" are a few of the formats that ARF considers as ways to allow issues and topics to be discussed in depth by those who attend the annual meeting.

Membership Form

Annual membership in the American Reading Forum begins in December of the year in which your application is received. All memberships include the annual YEARBOOK, which is received the following December. Members also receive registration for the Annual Meeting in December.

Name: ____
First Initial Last

Address: ____

____

City/State or Province/Code: ___________________________

Phone: Office (____) __________ Home (____) __________

Type of Membership: Individual ($35) _____ Student ($17.50) _____

Husband/Wife ($60) _____

Faculty Endorsement of Student Membership Application:

I verify that this applicant is a full-time student.

_________________________ _________________________

Faculty Member's Signature Name of Institution

Mail this application with your check, made payable to ARF, to

AMERICAN READING FORUM
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North Georgia College
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